THE SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For DECEMBER 1803.

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EDINBURGH.

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THE

SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For DECEMBER 1803.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE,

OF

SIR JAMES RAMSAY,

A GENERAL OFFICER IN THE ARMIES OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, KING OF SWEDEN. *

SIR JAMES RAMSAY was diſtinguiſhed for his long and meritorious ſervices in the armies of Guſtavus Adolphus King of Sweden.

It is a popular tradition, that the Scottiſh officers, who roſe to great military employments under that monarch, were, in general, mere ſoldiers of fortune, men low-born and illiterate.

This, however, like many other popular traditions, is erroneous. There may have been ſome Scottiſh officers in the ſervice of Guſtavus Adolphus, who, through extraordinary merit, attained to high rank without the aid of birth or of a liberal education; but moſt of them were gentlemen, and bred up as gentlemen ought to be.

The parentage of Sir Patrick Ruthven (Earl of Forth and Brentford), Sir James King (Lord Eithen), Sir William Ballenden (Lord Ballenden), David Leſley (Lord Newark), Lieutenant-General William Baillie, and many others in the ſervice of Sweden, is well known: The heroic houſe of Lindeſay ſupplied Guſtavus Adolphus with numerous officers: Sir Alexander Hamilton, General of Artillery, was the brother of the Earl of Hadington; and, to the advantage of birth, Sir Robert Monro and Sir John Hepburn joined the more important advantages of academical ſtudy in foreign parts as well as at home.

I have not been able to procure any authentic accounts of the family of Sir James Ramſay. It is probable, however, that he was a ſcholar; for of him a German poet thus ſpeaks:

"Scotia quem genuit, *quem lutetiæ Camena*

Our countrymen have beſtowed little care in collecting and preſerving any memorials of their brave anceſtors; and had it not been for Monro, himſelf an officer of diſtinction in the armies of Sweden, we ſhould have owed all that can be

* By the late Sir David Dalrymple, Lord Hailes.

he learned of Sir James Ramsay to the writings of foreigners, neither connected with Scotland, nor interested in her glory.

The first mention that we find of Sir James Ramsay is at the battle of Leipsic; where, as eldest colonel, he commanded the vanguard, being three regiments of chosen musketeers. (7th September 1631.)

After the victory at Leipsic, Gustavus marched into Franconia, took possession of the city of Wurtsburgh, and made preparations for the assaulting of its castle. (Marienberg.)

The river Maine separates the city of Wurtsburgh from the castle. Over it there lay a spacious bridge of six arches, and so lofty, that it rose near eight fathoms above the level of the water. The enemy, on retiring into the castle, broke down one of the arches of the bridge, and laid a long plank across it. There, as Monro says, "strong-headed soldiers might, with difficulty, have crossed one after another, under mercy of cannon and muskets; and while they could but file over, the enemy could receive them with full bodies of pikes and muskets; and the distance betwixt the water and the plank would have terrified one to venture over, for fear of drowning, although he were in no fear of the enemy."

As the Imperial army was fast approaching to relieve the castle of Marienberg, Gustavus resolved to storm it immediately; and he chose to make the attack on that quarter where the bridge stood; in this desperate service he engaged Sir James Ramsay and Sir John Hamilton, with their regiments; "because," as Monro excusingly adds, "the King knew their worth and valour, and was persuaded that if they refused it, none would undertake the service after them."

It lay not to enquire whether the reasoning, which Monro ascribes to Gustavus, be judicious or not: perhaps it might be said, that it was imprudent in the King to apply first to those men, who, by declining the service, would have deterred all others from undertaking it.

The Scots, according to their engagement, began the attack at the broken bridge, and, as might have been expected, they were repulsed. But Sir James Ramsay and his companion, having procured some small boats, daringly crossed the river with a few soldiers, and, notwithstanding the incessant fire of the enemy, landed under the castle.

While they were attempting to make a lodgement, "the soldiers whom they had left behind them, who before durst not venture to cross the plank, seeing their officers and comrades engaged with the enemy, to help them ran over the plank one after another as fast as they could run—made a strong head against the besieged, and forced them to give way and retire into their works*."

In this attack Sir James Ramsay received a shot which maimed his left arm, and, as is probable, rendered him unfit for any farther service in the field.

Next morning, the King ordered some Swedish and German regiments to renew the assault. They met with a feeble resistance, and soon made themselves masters of the castle. (8th October 1631.)

Sir John Hamilton, considering that the Scots had undertaken, at the King's desire, to storm Marienberg, and that they had already performed the most perilous part of the duty, expected that the

* *Note.* The singular atchievement is related, as nearly as possible, in the simple and unadorned language of Monro.

rest

reſt of it would have been left to them. Diſappointed in this, he thought that "the nation was wronged," and laid down his commiſſion. Guſtavus endeavoured to ſoothe him, and promiſed "to content the Scots another time;" but that punctilious commander remained inexorable.

The ſervices of Sir James Ramſay were rewarded with a grant of lands in the dutchy of Mecklenburgh, and with the government of Hanau.

Every one acquainted with the ſeat of the war in the days of Guſtavus, muſt perceive, of what high importance it was to preſerve the poſt at Hanau; and that poſt became ſtill more important after the death of Guſtavus, and the fatal overthrow of the Swedes at Norlingen.

It is impoſſible to determine the time at which this government was conferred on Sir James Ramſay.

There occurred a circumſtance in the earlier part of his reſidence at Hanau, which is characteriſtical, and, only on that account deſerves to be remembered.

Sir George Douglas*, formerly Lieutenant-Colonel in Ramſay's regiment, was appointed by Charles I. ambaſſador to Poland. On the road between Francfort and Hanau, his old commander, at the head of four troops of horſe, met him, and eſcorted him into the town. The cannons were fired, and the whole garriſon under arms in honour of the Britiſh ambaſſador.

At Hanau the ambaſſador was royally entertained during four days; and, when he waſhed before meals, as was the cuſtom in thoſe days, Sir James Ramſay held his napkin. The ambaſſador, being young in office, ſtrove to avoid thoſe marks of reſpect, as if they had been paid to his *perſon*, and not to his *office*.

1635. The Imperialiſts beſieged Hanau; and, to prevent any ſuccours from being thrown into the town, ſurrounded it with lines and redoubts. Hiſtorians expreſs their admiration of the fortitude and perſeverance of Ramſay during this ſiege, which was long and ſevere. He annoyed the enemy by vigorous and ſucceſsful ſallies; he took every poſſible precaution, as well to ſupply the town with proviſions, as to prevent waſte; he even unpaved the ſtreets, ſowed them, and reaped this ſingular harveſt. The inhabitants of Hanau, vying with the garriſon in courage and conſtancy, patiently ſubmitted to the calamities of war, and to the more grievous calamity of peſtilence.

1636. At length the beſieged, having conſumed all their horſe-fleſh, were reduced, by the extremities of famine, to feed on dogs and cats*.

William Landgrave of Heſſe, aided by the Swedes under Sir Alexander Leſley †, attacked the Impe-

* Son of Sir George Douglas, a younger ſon of the family of Torthorwald, and of Margaret, the daughter of Alexander Dundas of Fingaſk. He died ſuddenly at Damen, in Pomerania, (15th March 1635 6.) His ſiſter Martha, married to Sir James Lockhart of Lee, was the mother of Sir William Lockhart, well known in hiſtory under the title of *Embaſſador*. Sir William, then a youth of fifteen, was with his uncle at the time of his death. *Fowler*, p. 216. 236. 241.

* It is hard to ſay why Priorato, at p. 374, ſhould have aſcribed this gallant defence to a Swediſh Colonel *Fitzhum*. ("Nella Hanau commande il Colonello *Weſtum*, uno de piu bravi capitani, ch'hebbe la corona di Suecia.") For, at p. 445, he admits, that Ramſay, erroneouſly termed *Rantzau*, was the governor.

† Better known, in our miſerable civil wars, under the title of *Earl of Leven*.

rialists, forced their lines, and relieved Hanau. (13th 14th June.*)

The garrison, much weakened during the long siege, was replaced by 1200 Hessians,

The siege having been thus raised, Ramsay amused the Imperialists with offers of agreeing to a neutrality. And, in the mean time, he made wide and continual courses into the neighbouring country, and collected whatever might be necessary for the maintaining of the post committed to his charge.

1637. The Elector of Mentz, the Landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, and the Regency of Francfort, lay open, above all others, to the depredations of Ramsay. Neglected by the Imperialists, and unable, through mutual jealousies, to concert any measures for their common defence, they applied for a cessation of arms. It was granted, to endure until May 1637: but under this express condition, that Ramsay should be allowed to bring into Hanau, the provisions which he had purchased and collected in their territories.

At that time, Hermanstein, near Coblentz, was closely blockaded by the Imperialists; and was reduced to the like extremities of famine as Hanau had suffered in the former year. There could be no doubt, that, if it surrendered, the troops employed in that siege would march against Hanau, and therefore Ramsay resolved to send supplies to Hermanstein.

He loaded two vessels with military stores and provisions, and found means to convey them safely to the besieged fortress. (3d April 1637.

That, at such time, two loaded vessels should have passed by Francfort and Mentz, and made their way without suspicion, is a circumstance seemingly fabulous; and yet it is so well vouched, that no doubt can remain of its truth.

Priorato, an historian of mean authority, explains the stratagem used by Ramsay; while Puffendorf, although in general a better informed author, relates the strange attempt, without accounting for its success.*

Ramsay, it seems, loaded the vessels at Offenbach on the Maine, and put some soldiers on board in the disguise of Jesuits. He ordered them to say, "That the vessels were from Offenbach, and were going down the Maine and the Rhine with goods, the property of the fathers of that order.†" This fictitious account gained easy credit; and the personated Jesuits, as known partisans of the house of Austria and enemies of Sweden, were allowed to proceed on their voyage without molestation.

An attempt was made to convey a third vessel in the same way; but the Elector of Mentz intercepted it, (12th May 1637.) The garrison of Hermanstein, despairing of any further supplies, capitulated, (16th June 1637.)

The Elector of Mentz, who had intercepted the succours sent to Hermanstein, was the first object of Ramsay's resentment. On the ex-

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His life well deserves to be recorded in a *Biographia Scotica*, should there ever be spirit in our nation to accomplish any work of that nature.

* The *Mercure Francois*, says, "21st of June;" but I chuse rather to follow Puffendorf.

* Puffendorf, however, knew that some stratagem had been used; for, he says, that Ramsay made his attempt "*singulari quodam astu.*"

† Priorato says, "to *Mentz*," which must be a mistake; he should have said "to Cologne."

piration

piration of the truce, he surprised, stormed, and pillaged Aschaffenburgh, a town belonging to that Elector.

The Imperialists gathered about Hanau, and again threatened to besiege it. Ramsay was now deprived of every hope of relief; for, by that time, almost all the Princes of Germany had quitted their alliance with Sweden, and had obtained from the Emperor such terms of peace or neutrality as their necessities dictated: The Swedish troops, under the Duke of Saxe Weimar, were occupied in Alsace; those in Westphalia could hardly maintain their ground against the enemy on that quarter; and the other armies of Sweden could not, from their distance, afford any succour to Hanau.

In this extremity Ramsay began to negotiate with the Imperialists. The propositions which he made were of the following import.

That Philip Maurice, Count of Hanau, an exile for his adherence to the Swedish cause, should have a full pardon, be restored to all his territories, and be admitted to such conditions of peace and neutrality as the other German Princes had obtained: That the Count should maintain a garrison at Hanau, which, however, was to swear fidelity to the Emperor.

For himself, Ramsay stipulated, that 50,000 dollars should be paid in Scotland to his wife; that the Emperor, under the guarantee of the Elector of Mentz, should secure to Ramsay his possessions in the duchy of Mecklenburgh, or an equivalent in lieu of them; and, all these things being done, that he should cause him to be conducted safely to the quarters of the Swedish troops in Westphalia.

When the conditions of this negotiation came to be known, some of the Swedes complained, that Ramsay meant to sacrifice the interests of Sweden to his own private advantage: But he sharply made answer, that, as circumstances then stood, it was impossible that Hanau could be either defended or relieved; that he offered to treat, because he had no choice; and that, so far from seeking any profit to himself, he did not even bargain for indemnification: For that, in maintaining the post at Hanau, he had expended his all, upwards of 20,000 dollars of his own money, and upwards of 70,000 dollars, arising to him from contributions and spoil.

The French, whose interest leads them to foment every war in Germany, were in alliance with Sweden, and they endeavoured to counteract this treaty, by dissuading Count Philip Maurice from any accession to its preliminaries. But he, impatient of exile, embraced this favourable opportunity of returning to his own territories. (22d November.)

On his arrival at Hanau he imprudently assumed the powers of a Sovereign, issued orders to the garrison, as if it had been under his command; and he even prohibited the putting up of public prayers for the Queen and States of Sweden.

This premature exercise of authority offended Ramsay, and led him to suspect, that the Imperialists, instead concluding the treaty, proposed, by means of the Count, to expel the Swedes from Hanau.

In, as Puysegur imagines, Ramsay negotiated merely to gain time, and in the fond hope of succour from the Duke of Saxe Weimar, the consciousness of the duplicity of his own behaviour must have increased his suspicions of the Imperialists.

Besides, his garrison did not

now conſiſt of the men whoſe reſolution and fidelity had been tried during the former ſiege; and, after the reſtoration of the Sovereign, Ramſay could not expect to retain his wonted authority over the citizens of Hanau.

With that ſpirit of intrepidity and deciſion which he had ſhewn in the former exigencies, he ſeized the Count of Hanau and his confident Count Solms, and kept them in cloſe cuſtody. (13th December.)

1638. The face of this changed ſuddenly. Henry Count Naſſau Dillenburgh, at the head of ſome troops belonging to Mentz and Francfort, entered Hanau, either by ſurpriſe or treachery.*

Ramsay, in this extremity, collected ſome officers and about ſeventy ſoldiers, barricadoed a houſe, and maintained a deſperate defence, refuſing quarter; wounded and unable any longer to reſiſt, he fell alive into the hands of his enemies. (12th February.)

They ſhut him up in the caſtle of Dillenburgh, before he was healed of his wounds; and there is too much cauſe to ſuſpect that they treated him, while in priſon, with more ſeverity than the laws of war authoriſe.* His ſufferings, however, were not of long endurance, for, in a few days he expired. (11th March 1638.)

It ſhould ſeem that Monro, in a very ſingular paſſage of his Memoirs, covertly alludes to the fortunes and fate of his old companion in arms, *Ramsay*.

"Some fantaſtic officers, that cannot govern themſelves nor their wealth, will hunt and hawk with trains on princes bounds (domains,) as I have known ſome do being abroad, thinking themſelves equal to princes, whereof they were far ſhort; and they will have their ſilver plate, their gold, their ſilver (chains,) their coaches, their trains and officers of houſehold, counterfeiting greatneſs and great men; having, it may be, but little worth, (ſubſtance or property,) beſides, *ſuffering themſelves in their pomp to be ſurpriſed, their goods taken from them, and then to be caſt in a cloſe dungeon or priſon, till they die for want, the reward of their pride.*

* Moſt probably by treachery; for the troops conducted by Count Naſſau amounted to no more than 700 foot, with a ſmall body of horſe, a number not equal to that of the garriſon of Hanau. Puffendorff mentions a report, that Lieutenant-Colonel Danner, confederating with ſome of the citizens, opened the gates of the city to Count Naſſau.

* "In *gravem custodiam* traditus." *Loccen.* "Exaſperatis in ipſum vicinorum animis, *durae custodiae* incluſus, vitam finiit." *Puffendorf.*

For the Scots Magazine.

On the DIVERSITIES of GENIUS among MANKIND.

IT has been obſerved, that a political body or community of perſons is like the human body, in which all the different members have different functions allotted them. That this may take place in

in the political body, it is neceſſary that there be varieties of qualifications among the different members of which it is compoſed; and accordingly we find, that as there are varieties of diſpoſitions among men, ſo the inclination of one man leads him to chuſe one profeſſion, and that of another man, another profeſſion; and this variety of trades and profeſſions, was deſtined by the Supreme Being, for the good of this political body, for without theſe no ſtate could exiſt. All men are gifted with ſome talents, ſome to a greater degree, and ſome to a leſs than others; the abilities of ſome men enable them to ſhine only in private, and thoſe of others in public life. No man however has reaſon to boaſt of his talents, becauſe the more a perſon poſſeſſes, for ſo much the more is he indebted to the almighty beſtower of them. But every perſon, whatever be his ſituation in life, is gifted with talents, and ſome may as it were poſſeſs only one in compariſon of thoſe which are enjoyed by others; but all men were deſtined for a life of activity in that ſtation in which they were placed by their Almighty Creator, and to make uſe of thoſe talents which are committed to them, and accordingly no man is permitted 'to tie up his talent in a napkin.'

As man, therefore, was deſtined for a life of activity, he is obliged to make uſe of thoſe talents which are beſtowed upon him, and it is ſometimes found that if men do not make a proper uſe of their talents, they abuſe them or apply them for different ends, than thoſe for which they were beſtowed. This is generally the caſe with thoſe whoſe abilities ſurmount thoſe of the generality of mankind; and it is accordingly found that ſuch perſons as are remarkable for their genius, or human learning, are ſometimes as deficient in that which is of far more moment. It is the former ſort of knowledge which 'puffeth up,' and is therefore not to be deſired without a ſhare of the latter, with which alone a perſon can make a proper uſe of the talents which are beſtowed upon him.

All men were not deſtined by their Maker to ſhine in the ſame qualifications; ſome are remarkable for their mathematical knowledge, and others for their knowledge in other branches of literature, and it has been found that perſons who had no reliſh for ſome ſtudies, and who had been even given up by their preceptors, have at laſt riſen to eminence in ſome particular ſcience. The inclinations of men lead them to different ſtudies, and it has been found for the advantage of literature, that every man ſhould confine his purſuits, to the improvement of ſome particular branch of ſcience: and accordingly it has been found, that when perſons endeavour to excel in all profeſſions they ſeldom ſucceed in any one of them. It is therefore the duty of every perſon to direct his attention to the improvement of ſome particular department of literature. To enlarge the bounds of human knowledge, to embelliſh and illuſtrate moral and philoſophical truths, and to encreaſe the influence of virtue, by adding to her charms, is the peculiar province of genius. The human mind differs in a remarkable manner from that of the lower animals. The human mind partakes of the divine principle. It appears to be an emanation from the deity, and accordingly ſpurns at reſting for gratification from the enjoyment of earthly things, ſuch as animal wants or deſires. To this there is however one exception, for it is unfortunately found that ſome men place their whole happineſs in the gratification of

of the bodily defires. Such perfons however are certainly unworthy of the name of men, and may more properly be termed a higher order of brutes. Genius, as was juft obferved, foars aloft from earthly things, it travels through the immenfe regions of fpace, and accordingly it has been found to fcale as it were the heavens, and by the help of optical inftruments, has found out objects which in former ages were fuppofed not to exift. Of this the difcoveries of the great Sir Ifaac Newton are a proof and it may reafonably be fuppofed that if he had exerted his abilities for the improvement of other branches of fcience, he would not have fucceeded. The truth of the obfervation therefore appears, that every man has a peculiar department of fcience allotted to him, in which he was deftined to fhine, by properly applying his intellectual powers.

In fcience, as well as in religion, a fort of enthufiafm takes place among men, which infpires people with fo fond a paffion for particular ftudies, that by degrees they acquire a diflike, and frequently a contempt for all objects, which do not coincide with their own purfuits. This is obfervable among the common, as well as among the higher ranks. In the former cafe fome perfons expreſs their wonder at the patience with which fome artifts undergo the laborious parts of their bufinefs, and dwell upon the facility with which they can practife their own, and in the latter cafe, the cultivators of one fcience expreſs a contempt for the cultivators of another. Thus the philologift ridicules the calculations of the mathematician, as tedious and inſipid; on the contrary, the mathematician condemns the inquiries of the philologift, as nugatory and ufelefs; the naturalift laughs at the antiquarian's appetite for *rufts*; while in return, the antiquarian treats, with equal diſdain, the eager attention of the naturalift to the metamorphofis of a caterpillar. But thofe exclufive taſtes, however they may affect the individuals, who are attached to them, are not perhaps, of any real prejudice to knowledge in general. For the different departments of fcience and of art, have a mutual relation to, and reflect light on each other, and to this is to be attributed, that degree of perfection to which fome arts are now arrived; but notwithſtanding the rapid and fucceſsful progreſs of knowledge in modern times, it can fcarcely be faid to have arrived at fuch a fullneſs of maturity, as to be incapable of further improvement; and as to the communications of paſt times may be aſcribed the degree of perfection which fcience has already attained, fo may future ages improve upon thofe of the preſent, however contemptuouſly, fome modern minute philoſophers may now affect to treat them. Every fegment in the circle of fcience may have its uſes. The medalift frequently elucidates fome obſcure paſſage in hiſtory; and the moſt apparent trivial inveſtigation of the naturalift, by enlarging our acquaintance with the œconomy of Providence, cannot but impreſs an awful idea of that Almighty power, 'in whom we live, move, and have our being.'

It therefore appears, what an important truſt is committed to the cultivators of fcience in all ages. To them does the riſing generation look up for their improvement in the different arts. Some ſuperior, and as it were, heaven illumined minds ariſe in all ages, and had it not been for thoſe who have ariſen in paſt times, the firſt lights of knowledge would never have been kindled. There is every reaſon to expect, that others will ariſe in fu-

tur-

ture ages, from which we may entertain favourable hopes of the happineſs of poſterity.

As Men in all ages are therefore indebted to the diſcoveries of their predeceſſors, it is the duty of every perſon to make a proper uſe of the talents which are committed to him: ſuch perſons in particular, as have enjoyed the advantage of a liberal education, ſhould conſider that they are accountable to their God, to their country, and to themſelves, and thoſe who have 'laid up their talents in a napkin,' will have an awful account to give of themſelves to their Creator, as we learn from holy writ.

Man was not deſtined to be idle, hence it is a moſt erroneous opinion which ſome philoſophers have maintained, that happineſs is to be found in inactivity, and the truth of this aſſertion will appear when we conſider the conduct of men in all ranks in life. How many inventions do the indolent fall upon 'to kill time,' and it has likewiſe been obſerved, that when men do not apply themſelves to ſome lawful employment, they frequently apply themſelves to ſome unlawful one, and to this is to be attributed the crimes of robbery, &c. Man even in a ſtate of innocence was not deſtined for inactivity, his employment in the Garden of Eden, was to dreſs it, and to keep it; and much leſs when he has to earn his bread with the ſweat of his brow, is it to be expected that he ſhould remain in a ſtate of inactivity.

Of all the inhabitants of this world, man has certainly leaſt reaſon to be proud, eſpecially when he does not anſwer the end of his creation ſo well as other animals.

How unreaſonble then is pride, and the conduct of thoſe who will rather remain in a ſtate of indolence, than exert their talents. We ſeldom find, that any perſon of ſuch a deſcription, ſucceeds in the buſineſs of life. There are many inſtances of perſons arriving at the higheſt offices in the ſtate, who were originally in a very mean condition in life, and who, by the exerciſe of talents, which at firſt appeared to lie dormant, have riſen to that eminence. The conduct of ſuch perſons therefore ſhould be an example to others, eſpecially as in ſuch a country as Great Britain, the way to Honour lies open to all.

To the Editors of the Scots Magazine.

Gentlemen,

OBSERVING lately in the Monthly Magazine for November, an account of the population of Britain, obtained from returns of the different pariſhes, in conſequence of an act of Parliament paſſed ſome time ago for that purpoſe, I was ſtruck with the very ſmall proportion Scotland bore to England in that account, being only

only rated at little more than 1,600,000, whereas England and Wales contain upwards of 9,000,000 of inhabitants. From whence can this great diſproportion ariſe—Scotland, before the union, was, by ſome accounts, rated, in point of population to England, as 1 to 4, whereas it is now ſcarcely half that number. I therefore ſuſpect that meaſure has not been ſo beneficial to our country as repreſented, and that the fears of Lord Belhaven and others who oppoſed the union were but too well grounded. Surely the great ſums of money ſpent by our landed proprietors and others about London, and its neighbourhood, muſt be very prejudicial to Scotland, by occaſioning immenſe drains from the latter country; whereas, if our country gentlemen would live at home and give encouragement to the tenants on their eſtates to improve their lands, likewiſe to aid and aſſiſt in eſtabliſhing new branches of manufacture, where it was practicable to introduce them, I have no doubt but Scotland would rapidly increaſe in population and wealth, and emigration, which of late years has been ſo extenſive, would almoſt entirely ceaſe. The great population of England ſeems to ariſe in a good meaſure from the numerous manufactures diſperſed through the country, and the extenſive trade by that means carried on; and if our landed gentlemen and capitaliſts were to exert themſelves in a ſpirited manner, I have no doubt but a great improvement might take place. Indeed the advantages of the union ſeem to have been all on the ſide of England; as, by its retaining the ſeat of government, a great temptation is thereby held out to our nobility and gentry (who are not connected with Parliament, beſides thoſe who attend that body) to ſpend their incomes amid the ſplendours of the Court; whereas their native land, which ſhould be dear to their hearts, is almoſt neglected, as ſome of their ruinous country manſions will teſtify.

Was not Scotland more populous in the days of Bruce and Wallace, thoſe famous warriors and true patriots, and did it not bear a nearer proportion to England than even at this day, with all its boaſted improvements? And what are the beſt methods, whereby its relative ſituation in point of population and internal improvement might be amended? Your opinion on theſe important ſubjects, likewiſe on the duty of our landed proprietors to live more on their eſtates, and ſpend their incomes there, giving energy and life to all around them, publiſhed in your uſeful magazine, in a forcible and ſtriking manner, might be of material ſervice, and would be highly gratifying to,

Gentlemen,

Your moſt humble ſervant,

A Reader and a Caledonian.

Glasgow, 23d Dec. 1803.

N. B. It would be highly proper in all thoſe who are connected with or have any influence on our Nobility and Gentry, to repreſent to them the great propriety of their ſpending their incomes at home, and of the great benefit that would thence ariſe to their native country, to Scotia. If our people of faſhion would alſo encourage the Scotch woollen manufactures, by wearing the cloth produced from the ſame, I have no doubt but that branch would rapidly extend through the country, to its great benefit, by ſaving the immenſe ſums that go to England for that article and corduroys, &c. &c.

REMARKS

ON THE PRESENT STATE OF AEROSTATION.

SUBSEQUENT to the diſcovery of marine navigation, the daily proofs of aerial flight, as witneſſed among the feather tribe, ſerved to ſuggeſt to the ancients the probability of piercing the unexplored regions of the atmoſphere: various have been their attempts for this purpoſe, which (agreeably to the then preeminence of mechanical over the other branches of philoſophy) were confined to the invention of machines to aſſiſt man himſelf in imitating the motions of the feathered race, but more particularly to the contrivance of flying automata, as may be learned from the writings of many authors.

To enumerate and particularize theſe inventions would be of no avail, eſpecially as the bare recital of many of them would at once confirm their abſurdity; ſo that we may reckon nothing to have been practically converted toward aeroſtation till the experiment of one Guſman, a Portugueſe friar, who is reported, early in the 18th century, to have launched a paper bag into the air; which however ſoon fell, after attaining the height of 200 feet.

Many doubts have ariſen reſpecting the truth of this ſtatement, principally from the ſuppoſed unacquaintance of the philoſophers of that early period with the qualities and varying denſities of aerial fluids, as alſo the little probability that an elaſtic fluid could be confined, for any length of time, by paper, of which it has been aſſerted that the pores are indeed impermeable to air, though water eaſily percolates them; hence it has been inferred that the particles of water are finer than thoſe of air. 'Tis certainly true that air may be confined by paper, provided ſuch air be deſtitute of moiſture, and incapable of exerting a chemical action thereon; but if water paſſes the pores of paper, it is moſt probably occaſioned by its firſt effecting a ſolution of the mucilage, by which means the reſt of the fluid finds an eaſy paſſage; for, the hotter the water, the quicker does it percolate; and this is not attributable to any ſuppoſed attenuation of the individual particles of the fluid, but to an actual ſolution of the paper itſelf; otherwiſe the ſtrength of each ſingle fibre would remain unimpaired by the difference of temperature in the water; the contrary to which the manufacture of paper itſelf will evince.

The difficulty, therefore, of obtaining the gaſes in a ſtate of dryneſs in ſo large a quantity as is required for aeroſtatic experiments, will ever remain an impediment to the uſe of paper for any other than balloons of ſmall diameter, and on the principle of Montgolfier. Two brothers of this name, natives of France, conſidering the difference

in the ſpecific gravity of heated and cool air, juſtly imagined, that if a bag ſufficiently large, were filled with the former, the weight of the incloſed heated air and bag together would be leſs than an equal bulk of atmoſpheric air of ordinary temperature, and that ſuch an apparatus would aſcend till it ſhould attain that elevation where the reſpective gravities would correſpond.

Experiment fully verified the opinion they had formed, and M. Pilatre de Rozier was the firſt to make trial of its ſecurity.

The inconveniences peculiar to machines rendered buoyant by heated air, aroſe from the impoſſibility of keeping up the elevated temperature of the incloſed air without the continued renewal of fuel, and that in large quantity; whereby the travellers were expoſed to great danger from the occaſionally ſudden and unavoidable expanſion of the flames, and their inability to command that uniformity of rarefaction ſo neceſſary to the ſafety of the voyage.

As aerial chemiſtry had been before this time making rapid advances, ſo the philoſophical world, through the indefatigable labours of the honourable Mr Cavendiſh, had been made acquainted with the properties of inflammable air, whoſe ſpecific gravity, in a tolerably pure ſtate, is at leaſt twelve times lighter than atmoſpheric air. Doctor Black firſt applied this newly diſcovered gas to balloons, by ſuggeſting its incloſure in an air-tight bag, as capable of raiſing itſelf into the atmoſphere, agreeably to the common hydroſtatical axiom, that bodies immerſed in a fluid heavier than themſelves muſt inevitably float in that fluid; and that, as the denſity of fluids is proportionate to their heights, ſo the lighter body will continue to riſe till its gravity ſhall correſpond with that of an equal bulk, of the fluid in which it is immerſed.

Although Dr Black undoubtedly firſt ſuggeſted the propriety of applying inflammable air to aeroſtatic purpoſes, Mr Cavallo had the honour of firſt putting it into practice, which we find him to have been engaged in performing in the year 1782; but this experiment went no further than a demonſtration of the Doctor's ſuggeſtions, and the aſcent of ſoap-balls filled with inflamable air (as being the firſt experiment of the kind) is an original idea for which we are indebted to him.

The firſt inflammable air-balloon was launched on the continent by Meſſrs Roberts and Mr Charles in the year 1783; and the greater expediency of theſe latter machines over thoſe elevated by heated air, ſoon raiſed them to that pre-eminence they ſeemed juſtly entitled to; yet even with theſe there was conjoined the diſadvantage of not being able to raiſe or lower them without a loſs of ballaſt in the firſt, and of gas in the latter caſe. This ſuggeſted the idea of incloſing a bag of heated air in one of inflammable air, whereby, on varying the temperature of this inner balloon, the whole apparatus could be raiſed or lowered *ad libitum*, without loſs of gas or ballaſt. But as the vicinity of fire to hydrogen air and common air endangers a mutual exploſion, ſo this unfortunate plan deprived the world of that moſt intrepid philoſopher M. Pilatre de Rozier, who has the honour to bear the palm of aeroſtation, in being the firſt man who ever abandoned himſelf to the atmoſphere in a balloon.

If we conſider the natural diſpoſition of Frenchmen, ever prompting them to the purſuit of novelty, we ſhall not be ſurpriſed to find them warm advocates for the progreſs of this new art; eccentricity in the choice of their reſearches and amuſements having been ever a prominent trait in their national character

ter. Enlivened by the native softness of their climate, their dispositions partake of that gaiety which is to be found only in a country like theirs, where a less sluggish atmosphere and more uniform temperature tend to preserve a constant vivacity of mind. A latitude so favoured with serenity of season produces an abundance of vegetables and fruits, the want of a greater mixture of which in the diet of Englishmen causes the more prevalent sedateness of their manners, subdues a tendency to volatility, and keeps them from wandering from one pursuit to another. Hence we are less likely to witness among ourselves that sudden enthusiasm for the progress of any new art, and especially of this (to some) seemingly unimportant one; we have therefore had very few instances here of balloon excursions undertaken by really philosophical men; and, except Mr Baldwin, none have contributed aught to the science. His treatise compiled from the memoranda of a single voyage, is without its equal, and under such a philosopher the art must soon have attained all the perfection it could be capable of; while its present low state can be attributed only to the impossibility of finding his rival. The treatise of Mr Cavallo is an excellent book for practical purposes; and in these two volumes we find all the yet ascertained facts of aerostation; the pamphlets compiled by others being of no value, as containing for the most part a repetition merely of trifling occurrences of no avail to future balloonists.

Subsequent to the experiment of Messrs Charles and Roberts, many voyages were undertaken both in France and this country, during the years 1784 and 1785; and after the public curiosity was in some measure abated, the pursuit itself sunk in the public opinion, and received attention only from a Mr Blanchard, a French Gentleman, who for years before had been devising various methods to fly by mechanical means. This amateur (who has made near fifty aerial voyages, and who, in his several attempts to improve the art, has met with some unfortunate accidents) is the original inventor of the parachute; but his essay therewith was not attended with success to himself, although the animals he at times had committed to it for descent never experienced the slightest shock. Excepting then Mr Blanchard, we find the art making no further progress; and even the attempts of this gentleman for this purpose proved abortive.

The second æra of aerostation may be said to commence with the establishment of the aerostatic school at Meudon, in the vicinity of Paris; and the first immediate service of a balloon appears to have been derived in the battle of Fleurus, in the Austrian Netherlands, where from an elevated station the French aeronaut beheld the movements of the enemy; and by indicating the same by a telegraph purposely attached to the car, the battle is reported to have been gained by the French, principally from this contrivance to overlook the operations of the combined armies. Various reports have at times reached us concerning the flourishing state of this aerostatic school; but during the few years of its establishment no improvements appear to have been made further than the composition of the varnish, which is brought to the greatest perfection; and Mr Garnerin informed me the establishment itself is now given up.

We find then that the apparatus itself has undergone no confirmed improvement, perhaps from the pursuit being generally attended to by enthusiasts in novelty, strangers

to genuine ſcience natural or mechanical. Thus an aeronaut in the preſent day is compelled to go in the direction of the wind; and in deſcending, calmly ſits in his car to be knocked againſt every tree, houſe, or hedge, that may come in his way. So long, therefore, as aerial adventurers are liable to ſuch dangerous dilemmas, it is no wonder we find ſo few inclined to repeat their voyages; as the tranſitory enjoyment of a view above the clouds, is ſeldom ſufficient to incite a ſecond attempt under ſuch threatening circumſtances.

The reſtoration of peace affording to foreigners an opportunity of viſiting this country, whether prompted by curioſity, or to exhibit the productions of their inventive genius, this criſis proved a means of again exciting the attention of the Engliſh public to the almoſt forgotten ſubject of aeroſtation, as revived by the advertiſements of Mr Garnerin; a man of an ingenious turn of mind, without that collateral acquaintance with the ſeveral ſciences on which reſts the only ſure foundation for improving the arts, and eſpecially this peculiar branch of philoſophy, which ſeems to be his native *forte*.

Having made a number of aerial voyages, his mechanical acquaintance with the requiſites for inſuring ſucceſs was confirmed by frequent experience; but further than this we do not find him to have attained. He is alſo the firſt aeronaut that has ſucceeded in a ſafe deſcent by the parachute—an experiment which is of the firſt conſequence to the progreſs of aeroſtation. The late voyages made in this country by this latter gentleman are freſh in the memory of every one, and we have only to regret that ſo experienced an adventurer ſhould poſſeſs ſo ſmall a ſhare of the knowledge requiſite to raiſe aerial navigation to the perfection it might perhaps otherwiſe ſoon attain.

As an advocate for aſcertaining the iſſue of whatever may be dubious in the preſent ſtate of our knowledge, I felt anxious to ſeize ſo happy an opportunity of inveſtigating what degree of diminiſhed preſſure the human conſtitution could ſupport, as preſented in the intended experiment with the parachute: for this reaſon I offered to Mr Garnerin, that, as his balloon was capable of carrying four perſons, it would be fully adequate to the conveyance of two together with the parachute and ballaſt: under ſuch circumſtances it would be neceſſary to ſuſpend the parachute beneath the car; and my intention was to occupy the latter myſelf. An offer ſo advantageous for ſecuring Mr Garnerin's machine (otherwiſe left at random) was rejected by him, from the acknowledgement of his doubts reſpecting the event of ſo novel an experiment. But I truſt this experiment will not long remain unattended to by ſuch as may have an opportunity of performing it: the effects ſubſequently taking place from the loſs of a weight of upwards of 200 pounds at an elevation of 10,000 feet, are not ſo terrific as might be imagined; as during this after-aſcent no danger could attach to the machine; for, its neck being open, and thereby affording an exit to the gas, now ſomewhat more expanded by the abſence of the mechanical preſſure of the 200 pounds juſt loſt, yet gradually ſtill more expanding itſelf as it attains in this aſcenſion a zone of air of leſſer denſity, would neceſſarily prevent any rupture from that cauſe; while, if the aeronaut found his reſpiration too much affected to allow his attainment of the utmoſt height ſurmountable under theſe circumſtances, he could have nothing to fear ſo long as he has the valve at command. Neither have we any cauſe for apprehenſion from the velocity likely

likely to take place, if the traveller is not too near to the body of the balloon, or in a ſitting poſition; in both which caſes it is doubtful whether the approximation to a vacuum in the *wake*, and immediately in the vicinity of the lower pole of a large ſpherical body, aſcending with great velocity, might not endanger *aſphyxia*, from the ſuddenly diminiſhed denſity of the air received into the lungs.

At the ſame time, to ſuch as deſcend by a parachute from a balloon left at random, I would adviſe an attention to the following ſimple precaution, which cannot fail of inſuring the ſpeedy deſcent and recovery of the latter. In aſcending with a parachute according to the preſent conſtruction (the aeronaut being out of the reach of the neck of the balloon), it will be adviſeable to leave the neck open about a foot or more: previous to the aſcent procure a cord whoſe length muſt equal half the perpendicular circumference of the balloon when at its full diſtenſion; attach one end of the cord to the zenith of the balloon externally, or to the netting immediately over it, and (leaving it detached throughout the whole of its remaining length) to the other end faſten a weight of about 20 pounds. I ſay, when the ſeparation between the parachute and balloon is made, the latter, being deſtitute of any other poiſe, will gradually yield to this above-mentioned weight, and by its means the open neck of the balloon will progreſſively be made to aſcend; while the zenith will be drawn downwards, the machine thereby inverted, and the preſſure of the external atmoſpheric air will in a ſhort time force out the inflammable gas, and the whole bag quickly deſcend.

It would appear, from the above ſhort review of the ſtate of aeroſtation, that we have as yet made no further progreſs than the attainment of the means of riſing into the atmoſphere, of aſcending and deſcending a very limited number of times, and of departing from the machine in ſafety in caſe of any immediate with on the part of the traveller, when his ſtay therewith appears hazardous. As theſe are matters ſufficient to diſpel apprehenſion from the minds of thoſe who may be inclined to attend to this branch of philoſophy, it may not be amiſs to ſubjoin thoſe requiſites and precautions, an attention to which will not fail to enable the amateur to purſue this modern diſcovery with expedience and economy.

The ſtuff uniformly made uſe of in the conſtruction of balloons to be raiſed by inflammable air, is ſilk luſtring (*taffetas luſtré*) which is a ſubſtance extremely well calculated for the purpoſe, as poſſeſſing the valuable properties of cloſeneſs of texture and uncommon ſtrength, yet of little weight: but the price of this ſilk, though more moderate in France, is in this country ſo high as to augment the expenſe of a middling-ſized balloon almoſt to a prohibition to any but the wealthieſt individuals. I do not ſee, therefore, why ſtrong cambric muſlin, rinſed in drying oil (previous to ſewing the pieces together) ſhould not fully anſwer every purpoſe. After providing the neceſſary quantity of the ſtuff, and each piece having been properly prepared with the drying oil, let the correſponding edges be ſewed together in ſuch a manner as to leave about half an inch of one piece beyond the edge of the other, in order that this may, in a ſubſequent row of ſtitches, be turned over the latter, and both again ſewed down together: by ſo doing, a conſiderable degree of ſtrength is given to the whole bag at the ſeams, and the hazard of the gas eſcaping doubly prevented. Having gone in

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this manner through all the ſeams, the following method of Mr Blanchard is admirably calculated to render them yet more perfectly air-tight. The ſeam being doubly ſtitched as above, lay beneath it a piece of brown paper, and alſo another piece over it on the outſide; upon this latter paſs ſeveral times a common fire iron, heated juſt ſufficiently to ſoften the drying oil in the ſeam; this done, every interſtice will be now cloſed, and the ſeam rendered completely air-tight.

The neck of the balloon being left a foot in diameter and three in length, and all the ſeams finiſhed, the bag will be ready to receive the varniſh, a ſingle coating of which on the outſide is found preferable to the former method of giving an internal as well as an external coat. The compoſitions for varniſhing balloons have been variouſly modified; but, upon the whole, the moſt approved appears to be the bird-lime varniſh of M. Faujas St Fond, prepared after Mr Cavallo's method, as follows:

"In order to render linſeed oil drying, boil it, with two ounces of ſugar of lead and three ounces of litharge for every pint of oil, till they are diſſolved, which may be in half an hour. Then put a pound of bird-lime and half a pint of the drying oil into an iron or copper veſſel whoſe capacity ſhould equal about a gallon, and let it boil very gently over a ſlow charcoal fire till the bird-lime ceaſes to crackle, which will be in about half or three quarters of an hour; then pour upon it two pints and a half more of the drying oil, and let it boil about an hour longer, ſtirring it frequently with an iron or wooden ſpatula. As the varniſh whilſt boiling, and eſpecially when nearly done, ſwells very much, care ſhould be taken to remove in thoſe caſes the pot from the fire, and replace it when the varniſh ſubſides; otherwiſe it will boil over. Whilſt the ſtuff is boiling the operator ſhould occaſionally examine whether it has boiled enough; which may be known by obſerving whether, when rubbed between two knives and then ſeparated from one another, the varniſh forms threads between them, as it muſt then be removed from the fire: when nearly cool, add about an equal quantity of ſpirit of turpentine: in uſing the varniſh, the ſtuff muſt be ſtretched and the varniſh lukewarm: in 24 hours it will be dry."

Every balloon ſhould be provided with a valve ſo conſtructed as to open inwards, having alſo a ſpring to keep it ſhut. The ſtring by which this valve is regulated muſt paſs through a ſmall hole in the lower part of the balloon to the car; its length muſt be ſuch as to allow ſeveral coils of it to remain in the boat: this is a requiſite precaution, as, when the inflammable air is much expanded, the horizontal diameter of the balloon is ſo much more extended, and its lower pole conſequently drawn proportionably upwards, that the ſtring of the valve will be otherwiſe out of the traveller's reach; an accident which has frequently obliged them to climb up into the netting to regain it. The valve itſelf ſhould be covered with ſoft leather, reaching an inch or two beyond its edge every way. Its ſituation ſhould be upon the equator, (and not, as generally directed, near the top) elſe the lighteſt gas will be that which will eſcape; not to mention the greater inconvenience in the the latter caſe, ariſing from the eſtabliſhment of a complete current of atmoſpheric air through the balloon by the neck and valve together (the neck being generally left open a few inches), whereby a quantity of the lighter gas is carried off

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greater than one would imagine. To obviate this, the neck and valve ſhould never be both open at one time; aud I apprehend the accidents frequently occaſioned by the uſually rapid deſcent and rebounding of a balloon, are to be attributed to an inattention to this precaution; the gas being violently carried out of the valve by a current of air running through the balloon, and this current increaſing with the velocity of the deſcent; ſo that, when the valve is again cloſed, the balloon is found to have decreaſed in levity much more than was wiſhed for.

The car for balloons may be left to the option of the amateur, remembering that light weight, and the property of floating if deſcending over water, be attended to.

INSCRIPTION ON THE GRAVE-STONE OF THE REV. MR WM. ARMSTRONG, IN THE CHURCH YARD OF CANNOBY.

Here lyes the remains of the Rev. Mr William Armſtrong, late Miniſter of this parith (Cannoby), who died the 27th of January 1733 aged 41.

He lived the love and admiration of thoſe whoſe inſtruction was his care, and the delight of all who did not envy his parts, if parts unaffectedly diſplayed could ever create envy. An amiable perſon, an unbounded benevolence of manners, with a mellow and unexhauſted flow of good nature, cheerful, well-bred wit, combined to make his converſation an entertainment that was reliſhed by every taſte, ſoothed every turbulent paſſion, and almoſt healed all ſorrow. Smiling nature had ſo formed him to happineſs, that he was almoſt independent of fortune, for his uncommon ſoul, with a delicate ſenſe of pleaſure was ſcarce to be touched with pain, but from its own exquiſite humanity. To his dear memory this tomb is erected, as a token of her love and regret, by his widow Jean Sommervile.

For the Scots Magazine.

ON THE INEQUALITY AMONG MANKIND.

TO the moſt ſuperficial obſerver it may appear evident, that Providence never intended that there ſhould be an equality of ranks among mankind; and this is obvious from the varieties of genius which are to be found among men, and likewiſe from their various tempers and diſpoſitions. The varieties of ſtature and bodily ſtrength which are poſſeſſed by different men, are likewiſe another argument in proof of this aſſertion; as it would be unreaſonable to ſuppoſe that thoſe who

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are of a weaker conſtitution than others, ſhould be able to undergo the laborious and active duties of life, which can only be properly exerciſed by thoſe of a ſtrong and healthy conſtitution. As ſome men are fitted by nature to command and others to obey, ſo it would be unreaſonable to ſuppoſe that they ſhould all be on an equality, or that ſome ſhould not poſſeſs more wealth than others. The ideas of philoſophers, therefore, on this ſubject, have appeared to be merely chimerical; but the late revolution in France has proved the futility of ſuch a ſcheme, for the attempts which were there made to level all ranks, gave riſe to the greateſt misfortunes which ever befel any ſtate, and were productive of thoſe ſcenes of anarchy and civil war which now fill the page of the hiſtory of that unhappy country. It may appear likewiſe that an equality of ranks was not deſtined for men, from this conſideration, that the members of a ſtate may be compared to the human body. As in it the different members have different functions allotted to them, ſo that even the meaneſt is not without its uſe, ſo likewiſe is it in a political body, where the meaneſt member is not without his uſe, and if he were wanting, this body would be incomplete. This obſervation was made of old by Manlius Agrippa in the form of a fable, when he wiſhed to bring back the Roman people to the city from Mount Cælius, whither they had retreated from the tyranny of the patricians. The latter he compared to the belly, and the former to the different members of the body.

Since, therefore, this is the caſe, the members of a ſtate have no reaſon to deſpiſe one another, much leſs are the rich authoriſed to uſurp dominion over the poor. The artiſt and mechanic are the hands of this political body, to them are the rich indebted for their wealth, as they acquire it by means of their labour; and accordingly all wiſe ſtateſmen have found it expedient to encourage the induſtrious artiſt. Nor has the meaneſt citizen reaſon to be aſhamed of his condition. The ſituation of the poor is often preferable to that of the rich. The latter are moſt expoſed to the mutability of fortune; the members of a ſtate have been compared to a pyramid, of which the people are the baſe, and the king the apex. The apex may be thrown down, while the baſe remains; the branches of a tree may be broken off, while the root remains; as Horace obſerves, the ſtately pine is moſt ſeverely ſhaken by the winds; the lofty towers fall with a more violent craſh, and the thunder ſtrikes the tops of the mountains. Since this, therefore, is the ſituation of the rich, how little reaſon have they to boaſt of their condition; they are more accountable to the ſovereign of the univerſe, who diſpenſes the things of this world according to his pleaſure. The rich and the poor were meant to be mutual helps to each other; and the truth of this obſervation appears from the ſituation of the Roman people above referred to, where the patricians found that the ſtate could not exiſt without the people. The rich and the higher ranks of ſociety are compared in the allegorical language of ſcripture to the heavenly bodies, which ſhed light and heat on all below them: this, therefore, is the duty of the rich; nor have they reaſon to boaſt of their riches, nor deſpiſe thoſe of inferior fortune nor thoſe who are placed in a lower condition in ſociety than themſelves, for "riches make to themſelves wings, and fly away." The generality of men are egregiouſly miſtaken in their notions about happineſs. It is commonly thought to conſiſt in worldly grandeur and wealth; but

but all found philoſophers have condemned this opinion. Crœſus, king of Lydia, vainly imagined himſelf to be the happieſt of men, but was exceedingly mortified at the anſwer of Solon the Athenian lawgiver, who preferred a poor Athenian citizen to him arrayed in all his grandeur. It was already obſerved that the rich are moſt expoſed to the mutability of fortune; of this there cannot be a more lamentable proof than the misfortunes which have befallen the royal family of France, hence is made true what is affirmed in holy writ, "he poureth contempt upon princes." In ancient hiſtory are to be found many inſtances of the mutability of fortune; we find that Dionyſius the tyrant of Syracuſe was driven from his throne, and obliged to become a ſchoolmaſter in order to procure a livelihood. I have likewiſe heard a ſtory told, whether real or fictitious I ſhall not determine, of a rich merchant who refuſed to give his daughter in marriage to a certain nobleman, unleſs he had learned ſome trade. As the ſtory goes, this nobleman was ſo deeply in love that he complied with the deſire of the merchant, and learned to be a baſket-maker; he then made his addreſſes to the merchant's daughter, who approved of his paſſion, and the marriage was ſoon after conſummated. It happened that an enemy ſoon after this overrun the country, and confiſcated this nobleman's eſtate, beſides deſtroying all the merchant's property. In this ſituation the nobleman betook himſelf to make baſkets, by which he was enabled to provide for himſelf and his wife, who would otherwiſe have periſhed.

But though the rich have no reaſon to boaſt of their wealth and proſperity, nor to tyranniſe over the poor, the latter have no claim to their property. Were this the caſe, there would be an end of all induſtry. It is labour that gives the beſt right to property; and were men not ſure of enjoying the fruits of their induſtry, there would be an end of all activity. If the members of a ſtate were equally poſſeſſed of wealth, there would be no ſpur to active exertion, as men would not toil for what they had no inducement to acquire, or if the fruits of their labour were to be enjoyed by the indolent. Were this the caſe, the moſt civiliſed nation would remain in the condition of ſavages, whom hiſtorians have repreſented as being in a ſituation little better than beaſts. There would then be an end of all manufactures; the moſt valuable ſources of national wealth would be annihilated, becauſe if all men were upon an equality, none would ſubmit to perform thoſe offices which are eſſential to the exiſtence of any civiliſed ſtate. It was already obſerved, that the meaneſt citizen is not without his uſe; for even the perſon who cleans the ſtreets is neceſſary in a ſtate, as by this means the health of the inhabitants is preſerved, which might otherwiſe be endangered by the peſtilence which might ariſe from this cauſe. It is wealth and education which fit men to command, and it is a perſuaſion of thoſe abilities which influence the lower ranks to obey; and hence ariſes that ſubordination which is abſolutely neceſſary for the exiſtence of ſociety. It is education and experience which fit men to be ſtateſmen. Thoſe in the lower ranks of ſociety have no title to this privilege, as their ordinary employments by which they are obliged to earn their livelihood neceſſarily preclude them from acquiring that knowledge and experience which is neceſſary for a ſtateſman. The lower ranks, therefore, err moſt egregiouſly in ſuppoſing themſelves capable of holding ſeats in parliament; and experience has proved that if this

were the caſe, the people would only poſſeſs the ſhadow of liberty. For there was indeed a time when the Houſe of Commons conſiſted literally of plebeians. This was as late as the reign of Edward VI. when the repreſentatives of the people were at beſt burghers, whoſe ſituation in life precluded them from acquiring that knowledge and experience which was eſſential to the diſcharge of their duty, and they were accordingly made the tools of the King and Lords, who forced them to give their conſent to whatever they choſe to enact; theſe repreſentatives, too, were treated with the utmoſt contempt on all occaſions; and it is ſaid, that when the Houſe of Commons, compoſed of ſuch members, went in a body deſiring an audience of the king, they were uſed moſt ignominiouſly by the king's ſteward, who deliberately gave them the lie. The inhabitants of ſuch a country as Great Britain ſhould therefore be contented with their condition, and feel a pride from the conſideration of that ſhare which they have in the Government.

It is ſurpriſing to think how men are deluded by the idea of power. Some who have obtained their deſires in this reſpect afford unequivocal proofs of the unhappineſs of ſuch a ſituation. If even lawful princes are miſerable, how much more ſo muſt uſurpers be; hence Sylla, of old, reſigned his dictatorſhip, after he had experienced the anxiety and care which attended ſuch a ſituation. The Emperor Dioclefian, too, left the cares of a throne for the ſweets and retirement of the country. Thoſe who ſeemed deſtined by Providence for a ſtate of obſcurity have ſometimes overcome the diſadvantages which attended their ſituation, and have burſt thoſe fetters which were impoſed by birth and education, and of this there are many inſtances to be found both in ancient and modern hiſtory.

I SHALL now conclude what I have to ſay on this ſubject, by likewiſe proving from holy writ, that an equality of ranks was not deſtined for man. The advocates for an equality imagine that they have gained their point, by quoting the behaviour of the primitive Chriſtians, who ſold their poſſeſſions, and had all things in common. It is indeed ſaid that they laid the money at the apoſtles' feet; and it is alſo ſaid that they did not count what they had their own, but had all things in common. From this, however, we are not to ſuppoſe that they all gave up their poſſeſſions, but held ſuch a hold of them that they were ready to part with them, if the good of the church ſhould require it, and the apoſtles had the management of this money, who diſtributed as every man had need.

For the Scots Magazine.

ON RETIREMENT.

WHEN we view the ſituation of man, as contraſted with that of the lower animals, it appears evident, that he was not deſtined for a ſtate of ſolitude. But although a ſtate of ſolitude be unnatural to man, there

there are certain times when he may with for retirement; and, indeed, thoſe who cannot occaſionally reliſh it, may be ſaid to be ſtrangers to the finer feelings of human nature. Every perſon of a ſerious turn of mind is naturally fond of retirement, that he may contemplate, in ſilence, the works of the Supreme Being, and meditate upon his goodneſs. A ſtate of retirement is likewiſe neceſſary for a philoſopher, and for thoſe who are of a ſtudious diſpoſition; hence, thoſe who have no inclination for learning, endeavour to excuſe their ignorance, by ſaying, that it is men, and not books, that they with to be acquainted with; and, accordingly, this has always been found to be the language of dunces.

But as there are extremes into which men are ready to go in almoſt all the affairs of life, ſo it is likewiſe the caſe here. In countries where ſuperſtition prevails, the votaries of ſuch a religion think it a virtue to retire from the world; and in ſo doing, imagine they ſhew a reſolute and undaunted ſpirit. But this is certainly a miſtaken notion with reſpect to fortitude. True courage does not conſiſt in retiring from danger, but in facing it; not, however, raſhly, but when circumſtances authoriſe us to do ſo. It appears, therefore, that it is a ſpirit of cowardice, rather than of courage, which influences men to retire from ſociety, becauſe they cannot ſuffer patiently the mortification which they receive from others. A ſtate of perpetual ſtudy likewiſe was not deſtined for man. It is his duty to communicate his diſcoveries to others; and, accordingly, men ought to ſtudy, that they may diſplay their talents; and though retirement may be neceſſary for a philoſopher, it is neceſſary that he ſhould mingle with ſociety, and ſtudy human nature as he ſees it diſplayed in the characters of other men. It therefore follows, that the time of a philoſopher ſhould be ſpent occaſionally in ſociety, and occaſionally in retirement; becauſe, as it is his duty to contemplate human nature, ſo he can only do this by carefully reflecting upon his own feelings, that he may be able to judge of them by others.

As a ſtate of perpetual ſolitude is unnatural to man, and has a tendency to eſtrange his affections altogether from the world, ſo it is likewiſe as hurtful for men to live continually in ſociety. Thoſe who live continually in a crowd, are, in fact, the worſt of ſlaves; and, as thoſe who live in perpetual ſolitude are the ſlaves of themſelves, ſo thoſe who live in a crowd are the ſlaves of others. The man who is not at liberty to indulge his own thoughts, and act in the manner moſt agreeable to himſelf, cannot certainly be called a free man. There are ſome who voluntarily run into this ſort of ſervitude from their fondneſs for popularity, their love of adulation, and deſire for the empty parade of this life; and others live in a ſtate of dependence on the world, becauſe they cannot bear the company of themſelves, and this is a remarkable feature in the character of ſome men.

The ſituation of thoſe who fill the higher ranks in life, and are inveſted with authority, is certainly not deſirable. Their ſituation neceſſarily obliges them to live in a crowd, and they are continually ſurrounded with flatterers and petitioners. The houſe of ſuch perſons may be ſaid to reſemble a forum where lies are plentifully circulated in the form of compliments, and where gracious nods are returned in exchange for diſgraceful condeſcenſions. In this ſituation, they are not at liberty to act as they would wiſh; and however virtuous they

may be, their virtue may not always be ſafe from the inſinuations of flatterers and ſycophants.

Those who live in a crowd are the ſlaves of faſhion, as they muſt accommodate themſelves to the diſpoſitions of their companions. They become the ſlaves of their vices, as gaming and debauchery; and are alſo the ſlaves of pleaſure. For their ſituation, in obliging them to comply with the wiſhes of their companions, neceſſarily obliges them to indulge in thoſe pleaſures, which however innocent, and it may be praiſe-worthy, when uſed in moderation, prove the greateſt incitement to wickedneſs when immoderately indulged in. The crimes of thoſe in high life frequently proceed from their living in a crowd. To this we owe the falſe ideas of honour, which many entertain, and which influence them to ſeek for ſatisfaction in a duel. This often ariſes from the moſt trifling occaſion; for a word haſtily ſpoken, and miſunderſtood, may be the occaſion of the death of both parties. To this cauſe are likewiſe owing thoſe ſcenes of debauchery and riot, which frequently lead men to ſquander away immenſe ſums, ſometimes their whole eſtates, and thus bring themſelves to poverty, which frequently terminates in ſuicide.

But, on the other hand, the man who retires from ſociety altogether, is equally culpable. Such a perſon does not perform his duty to the world, nor to that community of which he is a member; he cannot be acquainted with real life; and it accordingly appears, that thoſe who live in ſolitude are generally of a gloomy diſpoſition, and this appears in the characters of monks and hermits, a ſpecies of whom were the Cynics of old, whoſe manners Lucien ridicules in the character of Menippus, whom he introduces in his Dialogues of the Dead.

No man has a right to ſhut himſelf up from ſociety, nor to retire from buſineſs in the prime of life. He muſt faithfully perform thoſe duties which are required of him, and he only can retire from buſineſs, and do ſo lawfully, who has diſcharged theſe duties aright; and an old age ſpent in retirement will be attended with inexpreſſible pleaſure, on recollecting, that the ſtrength and vigour of life has been ſpent for the good of ſociety. As we are accountable for all our actions, ſo we are likewiſe for our time. Time was beſtowed upon us that we might do good to ſociety and to ourſelves, and there is nothing on that account ſo precious. There are duties which we owe to ourſelves, which can only be performed in retirement; and there are duties which we owe to others, which can be only performed in ſociety. He who lives entirely for the world, will have ſufficient employment from the world. Such a man has leiſure enough for the ſervice of others, but he has ſcarce a moment to ſpare for his own. The multiplicity of viſits which may be given and received, proceed from a miſtaken notion of goodneſs, as theſe viſits may frequently be underſtood, and may tend to deprive a perſon of that time which might be more properly ſpent in meditation.

ON

For the Scots Magazine.

ON THE SUBLIME.

THE cauſes which beget ſublime ideas are various, and ſuſpend the exerciſe of our rational powers. From this, therefore, it appears, that the ſublime, far from proceeding from the poſſeſſion of our reaſoning faculties, conſiſts in a deprivation of them; and, conſequently, the cauſes which beget ſuch ideas have the power of creating aſtoniſhment. In the ſequel of this eſſay, it is propoſed to conſider the ſources from which ſublime ideas take their riſe—And,

In the firſt place, terror is a great cauſe of the ſublime. Whatever is terrific, implies an idea of danger; and whatever is dangerous, however inſignificant to the ſight, is far from being contemptible. Thus, there are many animals, which, though far from being large, are yet capable of raiſing ideas of the ſublime, becauſe they are conſidered as objects of terror, as ſerpents and poiſonous animals of almoſt all ſorts. The deſcription which Virgil gives of the ſerpents which devoured Laocoon and his children, is calculated to impreſs the mind with terror, and is accordingly capable of raiſing ſublime ideas. The phenomena of nature are certainly capable of raiſing theſe ideas, ſuch as an earthquake or thunder ſtorm. Of theſe, many may be found in holy writ. The earthquake which attended the crucifixion of our Saviour, is a proof of this. The manner in which the law was given from mount Sinai, is certainly calculated to beget the moſt ſublime ideas, as will appear to every perſon who reads the deſcription which the Sacred Hiſtorian gives of it in the book of Exodus. It is calculated to impreſs the mind with the moſt fearful ideas; and accordingly we find, that it had this effect upon the Iſraelites, and likewiſe on their lawgiver himſelf. There is likewiſe a moſt beautiful deſcription of a ſtorm given in the 107th pſalm. The convulſions of mount Ætna, as deſcribed by Virgil, are alſo calculated to beget the moſt ſublime idea. It is certainly a very fearful deſcription which he gives of the manner in which burning pitch and liquid fire ariſe in the air, and ſcatter deſtruction wherever they fall. The account too which he gives of that awful ſtorm which ſcattered the fleet of Æneas, is no leſs ſublime. In the writings of Homer, likewiſe, there are innumerable paſſages which are calculated to beget ſublime ideas; the account which he gives of the combat of the gods, is one of the moſt eminent; and that which Milton gives of the combat of the angels, is no leſs ſublime. From theſe inſtances, therefore, it appears, that terror is, in all caſes whatſoever, either more openly, or more latently, the ruling principle of the ſublime.

OBSCURITY likewiſe, is a powerful cauſe of the ſublime. There is certainly nothing more calculat-

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ed to impreſs the mind with fear than darkneſs; and, for this reaſon, the heathen temples were in general dark; and, in modern times, the American ſavages place their idol in the darkeſt part of the hut. The idea of ghoſts and goblins takes its riſe from this cauſe; and to ſuperſtitious minds, there is not a greater cauſe of fear. How frightful then muſt an idea have been during the dark ages, when there was a general belief in ghoſts and ſpectres, which it was the intereſt of monkiſh policy to eſtabliſh for ſelfiſh ends? The age in which Shakeſpeare lived, authoriſed him to introduce ſuch beings into his tragedies; and how awfully has he introduced them? How terrific is the appearance which the ghoſt of the late king of Denmark makes to Hamlet? The time in which it appeared was at midnight, and the ſounds which attended its appearance were ſufficient to impreſs the moſt reſolute mind with fear.—What an awful appearance too do the witches and the ghoſt of Banquo make to Macbeth; and likewiſe that which the ghoſt of Julius Cæſar makes to Brutus? No perſon ſeems better to have underſtood the ſecret of heightening, or of ſetting terrible things in their ſtrongeſt light, by a judicious obſcurity, than Milton. His deſcription of Death, in the ſecond book of the Paradiſe Loſt, is admirably ſtudied; it is aſtoniſhing with what a gloomy pomp, with what a ſignificant and expreſſive uncertainty of ſhakes and colouring he has finiſhed the portrait of the king of terrors, in the deſcription of which, all is dark, uncertain, confuſed, and ſu[illegible]me, to the laſt degree. What likewiſe can be more fearful than the deſcription which he gives of Sin, which it is not in the power of the painter to imitate; from which it appears, that there is a difference between making a thing clear, and making it *affecting*. It is in our power to do the latter by means of words, from which it is evident, that poetry, with all its obſcurity, has a more powerful effect than painting. A maſterly poet can paint a ſcene in more ſtrong and glowing colours, than it was ever adorned with by the pencil of nature; and communicate, by the force of deſcription, a more lively idea of it to the mind of the reader, than he could have received from the actual ſurvey of the ſcene itſelf. All the beauties of a ſcene are deſcribed by the painter in the ſame inſtant; whereas in poetry, their ideas are ſucceſſive. It is our ignorance of things, that cauſes our admiration, and chiefly excites our paſſions. Knowledge and acquaintance make the moſt ſtriking cauſes affect but little. There certainly cannot be a more ſublime deſcription, than that which Milton gives of Satan, which conſiſts in images of a tower, an archangel, the ſun riſing through miſts, or in an eclipſe, the ruin of monarchs, and the revolutions of kingdoms. There is a paſſage in the book of Job, which is amazingly ſublime, which ariſes from the uncertainty of the thing deſcribed, namely, in that fearful viſion of a ſpirit which Eliphaz declares he had, c. iv. ver. 13. How frightful likewiſe muſt have been the ſituation of the diſciples of our Lord, when they ſaw him walking on the ſea, and took him for a ſpirit.

POWER is likewiſe ſuſceptible of raiſing the moſt ſublime idea.—Power ariſes from the two former ideas, terror and obſcurity, eſpecially the former; as for inſtance, if a perſon looks at a man of vaſt ſtature, or any huge animal, a fear is excited leſt the enormous ſtrength which ſuch a being poſſeſſes, ſhould be exerted for the deſtruction of the beholder. The Cyclops Polyphemus, as he is deſcribed both by Homer and Virgil, is certainly cal-

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culated to excite ſublime ideas, on account of his immenſe ſtrength. Almoſt all theheroes mentioned by Homer, are capable of exciting theſe, on account of their ſtrength, as Achilles, Ajax, and Agamemnon on account of his extenſive ſway. Animals that are familiar, however large, are not capable of exciting ſublime ideas; as for inſtance, the ox, but a bull is capable of exciting other ideas than thoſe of an ox, becauſe his ſtrength is reckoned deſtructive. A horſe likewiſe is an animal, which in one reſpect, is not capable of exciting ſublime ideas, becauſe he is ſo generally known, yet what a ſublime deſcription is given of him in the 39th chapter of Job. In the ſame book what a moſt ſublime deſcription is given of the wild aſs, and of leviathan. But it is to the foreſt chiefly, that we are to look for thoſe animals which cauſe ſublime ideas, as the lion, the tyger, the panther, &c. Jupiter is deſcribed by Homer, as acting worthy of his character, and appears always in a ſublime point of view, eſpecially, when he gives the nod of aſſent to Thetis, which has furniſhed a noble picture for a painter. Milton's deſcription of Satan, likewiſe, when he prepares for the combat, is to be compared with either Diſcord in Homer, or Fame in Virgil. Homer's deities, however, ſink into nothing, when compared with the almighty power of the true God. The ſacred ſcriptures are full of inſtances of his power, which are all calculated to raiſe the moſt ſublime ideas, eſpecially the book of Pſalms, and the other poetical parts of Scripture. What likewiſe can be more ſublime than to contemplate the works of ſuch almighty power, this lower world, and the heavenly bodies. The human body is none of the leaſt of his works, which made the Pſalmiſt cry out, "I am fearfully and wonderfully made." But the human mind is a far more noble ſubject of contemplation.—Mind is the beſt repreſentation of the Deity which we are permitted to know, as in it alone, we reſemble Himſelf, and are ſuperior to the brute creation. Thus, in contemplating the works of the Supreme Being, the idea of power is carried to its higheſt pitch. Light likewiſe, is capable of raiſing ſublime ideas. What can be more ſublime than to view the riſing ſun, and the influence which his beams have in illuminating the world? The rapidity with which light moves, is likewiſe ſublime, as a flaſh of lightning. Milton was ſo well convinced of the ſublimity that is cauſed by light, that he repreſents the Deity, as "Dark with exceſſive Light."

VASTNESS is likewiſe capable of raiſing ſublime ideas, as a huge maſs of rock, or a ſteep precipice; as for inſtance, Dover Cliffs, as they are deſcribed by Shakeſpeare in King Lear. A level plain of vaſt extent is likewiſe capable of raiſing ſublime ideas; and what can be more ſo, than a view of the vaſt ſcene?

INFINITY, likewiſe, is capable of raiſing ſublime ideas; as for inſtance, what can be more ſublime than to view the ſtarry heavens in a clear winter night?

MAGNIFICENCE in building, is likewiſe capable of raiſing ſublime ideas, as muſt appear evident to every one who attentively views a beautiful edifice.

INTOLERABLE ſtenches are alſo capable of raiſing ſublime ideas; as for inſtance, that which ariſes from the body of the rattle-ſnake when it puts itſelf to death, is deſcribed by travellers, who have ſeen it in this ſituation, as capable of raiſing the moſt ſublime ideas.

SOUNDS, likewiſe, are capable of raiſing ſublime ideas; as the roaring of cannon, the howling of the tempeſt, the ruſhing of a cataract, the cries of animals. Such ſounds

as

as are ſudden, are likewiſe ſublime; and likewiſe what can be more ſo, than the ſtill and calm which ſucceeds a ſtorm? Circumſtances likewiſe give ſublimity to ſome ſounds which would otherwiſe be inſipid; as for inſtance, the noiſe made by the beating of a hammer, and likewiſe the ſound of oars.

These are the chief ſources from which ſublime ideas ariſe. They might all have been illuſtrated at conſiderable length, by quoting the paſſages in Holy Writ, and in the poets referred to, but theſe would have ſwelled the eſſay to an unneceſſary length, as the reader may have recourſe to the originals themſelves.

For the Scots Magazine.

FEMALE DELICACY.

PHILOSOPHERS have been perplexed in the enquiry, whether delicacy, the moſt engaging feature in the female character, is of natural or artificial growth. Among the moſt rude and ſavage tribes of mankind, this virtue has, in general, no exiſtence; in Otaheite, for inſtance, Dr Hawkeſworth ſays, that the women have not even an idea of indecency, and he produces examples, which ſhew them, in this reſpect, to be little ſuperior to the brute creation. The women, however, in New Zealand, who are perhaps as little cultivated as any on the globe, were aſhamed to be ſeen naked, even at a diſtance.—But if, among ſavages who are not influenced by any ſenſe of ſhame, female modeſty is ſeldom to be found, it is ſcarcely leſs a ſtranger in thoſe countries which reach the higheſt pitch of civilization and refinement. The Greeks themſelves, who termed all the reſt of mankind barbarians, were but a few degrees more delicate in this reſpect, than the moſt uncivilized nation of the world; and among the more poliſhed people of modern times, natural timidity and ſhyneſs of manners have been wholly baniſhed from the family of female virtues.

Modesty, if not the moſt dazzling, at leaſt the moſt amiable and faſcinating quality of the ſex, has always flouriſhed moſt in a middle ſtate, between utter barbariſm, and the extreme of refinement and luxury. The Romans, after they had emerged from ignorance and poverty, and before they became contamined by the wealth and manners of conquered nations, afford examples of the force of female delicacy, ſurpaſſing almoſt any thing related in fable; and among the Britiſh fair, particularly during, and for ſome time after the days of Queen Elizabeth, this ineſtimable virtue ſhone with conſpicuous luſtre.

From the increaſe of wealth, however, and the importation of vice and folly from France and Italy into this country, the female character has, in the general corruption of manners, if not undergone an entire change, ſuffered at leaſt a material deterioration. And as every publie virtue muſt fall with the contamination of the morals of the fair ſex, our women of rank are now called upon by their country, in whoſe cauſe they have evinced no want of ſpirit, to give ſuch examples in faſhion, manners, and deportment, as may, in ſome meaſure, reſtore to ſociety the pure and virtuous principles of our female anceſtors.

LITERARY EXTRACTS

AND

NOTICES.

OF THE ANTIQUITY OF THE HINDOO SCRIPTURES.

FROM "INDIAN RECREATIONS."

By the Rev. William Tennant, L.LD. M.A.S. and lately one of his Majeſty's Chaplains in India.

IT has of late become a faſhionable doctrine to aſcribe a very high antiquity to the Hindoo Scriptures; to find difficulties in the Moſaic account of the creation; and to feel an affected concern for its incompatibility with authentic records of the moſt ancient nations.

M. de Voltaire imagines that he has expoſed the Jewiſh ſtory to a ſtrong degree of ridicule, becauſe it repreſents the creation of the world as having happened only ſeven thouſand years ago, while the Chineſe trace it back to a far greater number of millions. Mr Halhed, the tranſlator of a Perſian compilation of Hindoo laws, deſcribes the impreſſion which the antiquity of theſe books make upon his mind, and the difficulty he finds of bringing down his imagination "to the obedience of faith*."

In a word, our antiquarians are ever in danger of picking up from the immenſe heap of faithful manuſcripts at Benares, ſome direful fragment that may overturn the chronology of the bible; like the Canon Recupero, when he examined the ſtratified lava of Mount Ætna, "they feel the writings of Moſes a dead weight upon them." It is to be regretted, that in the ſevere drudgery of turning over ſo many volumes of wiſdom, they ſhould be ſo often diſturbed by parchments with claims of antiquity ſo ſtrong, that they effectually ſtagger *reaſon*, and alarm them into unbelief.

Mr Halhed thus laments, "that tho' we may come to the peruſal of their records, armed with every argument, and fortified even to prejudice againſt the admiſſion of their pretenſions, at the ſame time placing the moſt implicit reliance upon the Moſaic chronology as generally received, yet their plauſible accounts of theſe remote ages, and their undeviating confidence in their own aſſertions, never can fail to make ſome impreſſion upon us, in proportion as we gain a nearer inſight into them."

As the Engliſh reader may not poſſibly be armed with every argument, nor ſo completely fortified in European prejudices as Mr Halhed, it would be unfair to expoſe him to the whole force of that plauſibility which proved ſo irreſiſtible to that gentleman. Let it

* This gentleman has ſince found no difficulty in believing the wild abſurdities of the Prophet Brothers.

fuffice to fay, that the Hindoos reckon the duration of the world by four *jogues*, or ages, containing together above eight millions of years.

The firft age, or that of purity (*Suttee jogue*) lafted 3,200,000 years. In this period, which feems to correfpond with the golden age of our European poets*, men practifed their duty without the compulfion of law; their life extended to an hundred thoufand years, and their ftature was twenty-one cubits.

In the fecond, or *Tirtah jogue*, one third of the human race became reprobate, and the period of life was reduced to ten thoufand years, while that of the age itfelf was contracted to two millions four hundred thoufand years.

In the third age, the depraved part of the fpecies amounted to one half, and the duration of life only to a thoufand years. This age lafted 1,600,000 years.

Laftly came the *Kalli jogue*, or prefent æra, which is fuppofed to fubfift only 400,000 years, of which about 5000 are already elapfed. In this age the depravity of men became univerfal, and their lives were reduced to the term of 100 years.

Such is the "plaufibility" of the Hindoo account, which made fo deep an impreffion upon Mr Halhed. "Computation," fays he, "is loft; and conjecture overwhelmed in the attempt to adjuft fuch aftonifhing fpaces of time to our confined notions of the world's epoch: to fuch an antiquity the Mofaic creation is but as yefterday; and to fuch ages, the life of Methufelah is but a fpan!"

Our "confined notions" refpecting the duration of the world, are no rules for other nations in forming their legends, no more than fober hiftory is the ftandard for writing romance. Happily there is no neceffity for reconciling them; otherwife the Hindoo chronology might be found equally confonant to ours as twenty-one cubits are to the length of a man.

Nations are as much intereffed in the dignity of their origin as individuals; high antiquity is univerfally believed to confer on both a luftre, which the lefs it is genuine, is the more eafily counterfeited. Even in Europe, almoft every nation carries its origin back to remote periods of darknefs and fiction; although there, the gratification of vanity is limited by the prevalence of knowledge and of fober criticifm. Were the early annals of Egypt or Ethiopia difcovered, their limited knowledge would probably be found to bear them out in pretenfions as grofs as thofe of the Hindoos. We know that in China, where this kind of arrogance is not checked by any incredulity among the people, that fyftem of chronology reaches far beyond that of the Brahmins, where dates muft appear to thefe people as of "yefterday, and their lives as a fpan." It is fufficient, therefore, to eftablifh the authority of the Brahminical fcriptures, that they accord with the fuggeftions of human vanity in a rude and uninformed nation. Their gigantic fize and their longevity bear an exact conformity with fictions and traditions of every early people. Thefe tales of the nurfes are gradually fyftematifed, and tranfcribed into the records of the nation; yet they are ftill tales though they may happen to be repeated with wonder by a different defcription of *old women*.

"Mere human reafon," fays this tranflator, "upon confideration of the prefent contracted meafure of mortality, can no more reconcile to itfelf the idea of patriarchal than of Brahminical longevity:" and "when the line of implicit faith is once extended, we can never afcertain the precife limits beyond which it muft not pafs."

The facility with which this gentleman on fome late occafions has extended the "line of implicit faith," has rendered it doubtful whether with him it has any limits at all. According to him the great fource of credibility to the Brahminical writings arifes from the undeviating confidence in their own aflertions. To many, confident aflertions will appear a very fingular and precarious teft of truth, however ftrictly Mr Halhed may have demeaned himfelf by fuch a rule. Munnoo, it would feem, one of the moft authoritative of the Hindoo fages, has himfelf affixed a date to his own code. "When ten thoufand and ten years of the Suttee Jogue were paft, on the night of the full moon, in the month Bhadun, I Munnoo, at the command of Brahma, finifhed

* Sponte fine lege juftitiam colebant. *Ovid Metam.*

finiſhed this ſhaſter, that ſpeaks of men's duty, of juſtice, and of religion ever inſtructive." It is ſufficient then, it would ſeem, to command the belief of Mr Halhed, that an impoſtor confidently aſſerts, that he has communicated with the deity on the night of the full moon.

The next aſſerter of the antiquity of theſe ſcriptures is Jage Bulk, who ſays, "In the Tirtah Jogue, when ninety-five years were paſt, in the night of Sawun, on the moon's increaſe, on the day of Mercury, I finiſhed the treatiſe called Jage-Bulk, which ſets forth the offices of religion, and alſo informs men of the duties of the magiſtrate."

"What period," ſays the tranſlator, "ſhall we poſſibly aſſign to thoſe writings, if we diſallow the authorities here quoted. If they are falſe, there muſt have been a time when the impoſition would have been too palpable to have paſſed upon mankind, and where the concurrent teſtimony of the whole world muſt have riſen in judgment againſt it."

The impoſition running through the whole of theſe books, as well as their dates, may at firſt ſight ſeem too palpable to paſs upon mankind; and certainly had they been either capable or diſpoſed to liſten to rational evidence, they could never have been received as any thing elſe than the impoſitions of craft upon ignorance. But the very reverſe of this is the actual ſtate of nations in early times. Their ancient narratives are all marvellous, and all implicitly believed; and it is not wonderful that books which contain either ſome prodigy or groſs fiction in every page, ſhould alſo aſſume a romantic claim to antiquity. The ſtyle is uniform in each part, and well ſuited to gratify a paſſion for the marvellous, and to gain upon the unſuſpecting credulity of a ſimple people. That the Hindoos ſhould receive theſe conſecrated fictions is what we ſhould expect from human nature: and had their early records been entirely diveſted of every romantic abſurdity, they would on that account only have diſplayed ſomething new in the annals of prieſtcraft and ſuperſtition.

We are further acquainted that, at the beginning of the Kalh Jogue, Shuke Dew, a modern author according to Hindoo records, compoſed a work conſiſting of three thouſand and twenty chapters, and detailing the hiſtory of India during the three preceding Jogues, the ſucceſſion of its rajahs, and the duration of their reigns. "What ſhall we ſay," continues Mr Halhed, "to a work compoſed four thouſand years ago, and from thence tracing mankind upwards for ſeveral millions of years?" If ſuch a book exiſts its contents may fall within the extended line of Mr Halhed's implicit faith, and may be well ſuited to his intellect; though to other minds it will probably convey but a ſmall portion of information*.

When we turn from the date of the Hindoo creation, and conſider the account given of that great event, we look in vain for that conciſeneſs and ſublimity which has been admired in the Jewiſh lawgiver even by the heathens themſelves. "God ſaid, let there be light; and there was light," is an example of the ſublime quoted by the celebrated Longinus, who has long held a diſtinguiſhed rank as a judge of compoſition. In the work of Menu every thought is frittered down, by an affected ſubtilty, and a too minute particularity of deſcription: He deſcribes the Spirit of God as moving upon the water, almoſt in the words of Moſes; and the chaotic darkneſs from which the creation was called forth bears a ſtrong ſimilarity in both ſyſtems. The former, however, not only loſes its dignity, but even gravity, when after the inferior deities, ſages, and other great perſonages are brought into exiſtence, it ſpecifies the creation "of ſmall and large reptiles, moths, lice, fleas, and common flies, and every biting gnat."

The time employed by the divine agency in the Hindoo creation is not ſpecified; but as the ſyſtem comprehends no leſs than fourteen ſpheres or worlds, ſix above, and ſeven below that which we inhabit, human notions would lead us to conceive greater ſpace neceſſary for its completion, had not the ſame books themſelves informed us, "that there are numberleſs creations and deſtructions of worlds; and that the Being, ſupremely exalted, performs all this with as much eaſe as if in ſport, again and again, for the ſake of conferring happineſs†."

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* Credat Judæus Appella, non ego.

† Menu Inſtit. chap. i. v. 80.

This paſſage alludes to a notion more clearly expreſſed elſewhere; that after the four jogues are completed, another creation will commence, enduring for the ſame number of ages. The ſpheres or worlds above ours are the regions deſtined for the reward of good men according to their different attainments in holineſs. The Swergeh, or firſt paradiſe is the general receptacle for all ſuch as have merited a removal from this lower earth: a ſecond place, the Mahun, is the abode of Fakeers, and ſuch perſons as by dint of prayer have attained a more than ordinary degree of ſanctity. The third heaven, Junneh, is alſo the reſidence of pious ſouls, a glorious ſphere, beyond which ſouls are ſuppoſed not to paſs without ſome uncommon merit and qualifications*. The other celeſtial manſions, up to the Suttee (which is higheſt of all, and the reſidence of Brahma, with a few particular favourites), are inhabited by ſuch as have all their lives performed ſome wonderful penance, or died martyrs for their religion. The higheſt prize of all in this great lottery of life, is reſerved for thoſe who have never in their whole life uttered a fiction; and to thoſe women who have burned themſelves on the funeral pile of their huſbands.

The Hindoo ſyſtem, with all its exuberance of bliſs is not more fertile in rewards than puniſhments; beſides thoſe numberleſs tranſmigrations to which it ſubjects ſinners, there are twenty-one different hells, or regions of poſitive torture, where men are conſigned for puniſhment according to their ſuppoſed criminality. None of theſe puniſhments are however eternal; but a redemption from them is admitted, as well as a ſtate of final beatitude, by their abſorption into the ſupreme being.

Theſe ideas of the creation are received by the Hindoos literally as they are expreſſed; and they conſtitute an introductory chapter to their religious and civil code; which muſt prove of high utility if it reconcile each of the claſſes to its ſtation in ſociety. Brahma, the immediate agent of the creation, is declared to have formed the Brahmin from his mouth; and the duties enjoined him are not merely ſymbolically repreſented by that organ from which he is produced, but to pray, to read, and to inſtruct, are believed to be qualifications, the unavoidable reſult of his formation from that organ.

The Katri by being formed from the arms is qualified with ſtrength to fight and to govern. The Vayſe proceeding from the belly are qualified to produce the nouriſhment of ſociety, by exerciſing the vocations of agriculture and traffic. The Sodra, being formed from the feet, is doomed to a ſtate of ſubjection, in which his duty conſiſts of labour in the ſervice of the other tribes.

It is the regret of a benevolent writer, that ſo many millions of the human race are born to no other inheritance but ſlavery; his feelings would have been ſtill more deeply wounded had he beheld a ſociety the greater part of which was doomed to inherit infamy as well as ſlavery.

The Hindoo ſyſtem, beſides theſe four great tribes juſt mentioned, ſanctions a fifth or adventitious claſs, that ariſes from illegitimate connections between the other tribes. This numerous portion of the people, which conducts the mechanic trades and petty traffic, is held infamous as well as ſervile. All the tribes of Burrun Sunker are believed to be contaminated by the guilt of their parents, and the tradeſmen of India are deemed infamous as well as poor. The law makes a diſtinction in the crimes and puniſhment of all the claſſes; an injury to one order is in ſome caſes capital, while the ſame offence would, if committed againſt an inferior, be amerced by a trifling ſum.

* Vide Introd. Gentoo Laws, by Mr Halhed.

IMPERFECTIONS OF HINDOO HUSBANDRY, AND THE OBSTACLES TO ITS IMPROVEMENT.

FROM THE SAME.

WITH an excellent ſoil, and climate, and poſſeſſed of almoſt every variety of cultivated grain, and a competent number of hands to raiſe them, the imperfection of huſbandry in Hindoſtan is far greater than we ſhould have expected.

1. THE beſt ſeaſon of ſowing is not ſufficiently attended to: the month of the rains has been found the moſt advantageous period for rice, ſince it admits of the harveſt in the commencement of the dry weather. Hence the rice of this ſeaſon is not only moſt plentiful, but is not liable to early decay. From the want of a ſufficient number of hands, induſtry and capital, this crop is ſometimes ſown in the dry weather, and at the beginning of the rains, when the return is never equally profitable. In the caſe of ſowing during the dry ſeaſon, the expence of irrigation becomes ſo great as muſt encroach deeply on the profits. Though ſeveral ſeaſons occur here in the ſame year, yet much greater attention to the period ſuitable for different corps, than is paid by the farmer, is neceſſary.

2. The Hindoo peaſant is deficient in the choice and ſelection of the beſt varieties of each grain. The culture of almoſt every plant, and particularly of the *gramina*, in proportion as it has been long diffuſed, induces numerous varieties. The ſeveral ſeaſons of cultivation, added to the influence of ſoil and climate, have multiplied the different ſpecies of rice, into endleſs variety. From the awned and unawned, from that growing on the mountains to that produced in humid ſituations, there are various diverſities adapted to every circumſtance of ſoil, climate, and ſeaſon, which might exerciſe the judgment of ſagacious cultivators, but which the Hindoo overlooks except in the moſt obvious caſes. The enlightened farmers in Britain would here find ample room for improvement.

Of wheat and barley there are much fewer varieties: and I do not find in practice, that the ſimple expedient of changing the ſeed is attended to. The moſt common ſamples are ſmall, and not ſufficiently plump. The barley is probably too mean a ſpecies for our excellent ſoil and climate. It is invariably big, or the Hordeum tetraſtichum of Linnæus. The wheat is a ſmall long awned variety, apparently unchanged for many centuries.

3. There is great want of green crops for houſe feeding: a circumſtance the more remarkable, ſince, during the dry months, the fields not in crop, are reduced to a ſtate of abſolute ſterility, and the ſtock barely kept alive. This is the more inexcuſible, becauſe there is in the occupation of huſbandry here every variety of pulſe that is known. No ſeaſon is without its appropriate ſpecies; but moſt ſpecies are ſown or ripen in the winter.

As all theſe thrive on poor ſoils, and require but little cultivation, they would prove moſt valuable products in huſbandry, could they be adminiſtered as green food, or applied as hay. The millets are alſo in great variety: they bear a low price; and are the food of the pooreſt claſſes. Several of theſe grains are reſtricted to no ſeaſon; vegetate rapidly, and occupy intervals between their crops: yet no contrivance has been fallen upon to have a ſufficient ſupply of them for the ſuſtenance

tenance of live ſtock during winter and ſpring. The maize, though the moſt productive of all corn, and not inferior as human food, has not yet been converted to this purpoſe. The coarſe ſtraw of this and ſome other ſorts of corn ſeem to make up the whole of the wretched provender of this country, where the cattle that ſurvive hunger, at certain ſeaſons are barely able to walk.

4. The univerſal uſe, and vaſt conſumption of vegetable oils muſt be regarded as in ſome reſpect prejudicial to agriculture. Much labour, and a great proportion of the cultivated land is occupied in the produce of this article, which might partly be ſaved by the uſe of animal food: oil is neceſſary to ſeaſon and enrich their food, where deprived of that article of diet. In anointing the body, and in ſupplying their lamps, immenſe quantities are conſumed. Hence the extenſive cultivation of linſeed, palma chriſti, ſeſamum, and many other articles that trench deeply upon the productive grounds for human ſuſtenance: this muſt be highly diſadvantageous, if it be true as ſome have alledged, that all crops are ſcourgers, in proportion to the oil they contain.

5. Among the imperfections of our huſbandry the too ſcanty cultivation of the moſt valuable crops cannot be omitted. Tobacco, ſugar, indigo, cotton, mulberry, and poppy, are by far the moſt important productions of Bengal: theſe are not only rich in proportion to the land they occupy, but are moſt valuable in commerce and manufactures. They require land highly cultivated, and appropriated to their production; and there can remain no doubt, that a ſpirited huſbandry would convert a far greater proportion of the land to theſe valuable productions. Theſe do not hitherto occupy perhaps the twentieth part of the land which a greater capital, and more active huſbandry would force into their production. This end once accompliſhed, the number of productive labourers, and the profits of huſbandry would be encreaſed in a very great degree. Sugar, as it ripens during the end of the dry ſeaſon, might of itſelf probably ſupply the grand deſideratum of Indian huſbandry, the want of green food for cattle. It is the moſt nutritious of all vegetable food for every animal, that has yet been fed with it.

6. The paltry and inſufficient implements of huſbandry forms another obſtacle to good cultivation. In Spain, Italy, and the ſouthern countries of Europe, theſe implements are bad; but yet here they are outdone by the Hindoſtanee ſpade or ſhort hoe, by the wretched ſubſtitute for a harrow, and the trifling plough. Two or three pair of oxen are aſſigned to each plough, relieving one another, till the daily taſk be compleated. Several ploughs in ſucceſſion deepen the ſame furrow, or rather ſcratch the ſurface; for the plough wants a contrivance for turning the earth, and the ſhare has neither width nor depth to ſtir a new ſoil. A ſecond plowing croſſes to firſt; and a third is ſometimes given diagonally to the preceding. Theſe are frequently repeated, and followed by the ſubſtitute for the harrow before the tilth can be compleated. The weeders uſe the ſhort handled ſpade, and ſit down to their work: However familiar that poſture may be to an Indian, his labour is not employed to advantage in this mode of weedding.

Expenſive implements of huſbandry, or complex machinery, are, perhaps, not neceſſary in oriental agriculture, yet it cannot fail to ſtrike every obſerver, that their tools are far below the ſtandard neceſſary for cheap and well executed labour.

The univerſal uſe of the reaping hook, inſtead of the ſcythe, occaſions alſo much unneceſſary labour. This does not ariſe merely from the want of a more expeditious implement, but from the practice of ſelecting the ripeſt plants, which waſtes much time, while it damages the crop. Even the advantages of this practice are not fully gained; for, in one field, while the Ryut gathers the plants as they ripen, in another you will ſee the crop allowed to paſs the period of maturity. The loſs thus incurred by the grain which drops before harveſt, is ſo conſiderable, that if the field remains unſown, it will afford a crop by no means contemptible.

7. Till lately the want of roads was much felt in Great Britain; in Hindoſtan, this want ſtill continues to operate with full force againſt its rural economy. From the low humid ſituation

tion of Bengal, roads could not eaſily be provided ſo as to give acceſs to every ſeaſon; in the dry months, however, it would prove of vaſt advantage to the farmer to be enabled to carry his produce, by wheel carriage, inſtead of the tedious method of burdens which he now uſes. In forwarding the operations of huſbandry nothing is more effectual than good roads; it is the firſt ſtep to all ſolid improvement; and the ſimple fact, that the Hindoo does not carry home his crop by means of cattle, is of itſelf a ſtrong proof of a ſtate of huſbandry diſproportioned to the population of the country. The boaſted roads of Shah Jehan, and ſome of the Emperors, are ſtill to be ſeen in their remains; but they probably were never very ſubſtantial, otherwiſe they could not have been ſo ſoon defaced. The high roads conſtructed by the Company, are perhaps better executed, but are by far too partial to afford any relief to the country.

8. In every hot climate, irrigation is the grand inſtrument of fertilization: in the higher parts of Bengal, as well as in the interior of Hindoſtan, it is the indiſpenſible requiſite of good huſbandry. From what we learn of China, the rural economy of India appears extremely defective in the article of irrigation, although this ſubject is leſs neglected than that of tranſport. In the management of forced rice, dams retain the water on extenſive plains; or reſerve it in lakes, to water lower lands as occaſion requires. In the ſame culture, ridges are raiſed round the field to retain water, which is raiſed by the ſimple contrivance of a curved canoe ſwinging from a pole. In other ſituations, ridges are alſo raiſed round the field, both to ſeparate lands, and to conduct the water on conſiderable tracts. Water raiſed by the hand, or by cattle from wells, ſupplies the deficiency of rain in ſome diſtricts. Each of theſe methods, being within their own compaſs, is executed by the peaſants themſelves. But thoſe extenſive canals which were dug in the neighbourhood of Delli, and in the Panjab, are not now in uſe; nor is that machinery, ſo general in China, any where uſed in India for raiſing water, though the beneficial effects of it are fully known from experience. Reſervoirs, water courſes, and dykes, are more generally in a progreſs of decay than of improvement.

9. The ſucceſſion of crops, which engages ſo much of the attention of enlightened cultivators in Europe, and on which principally reſts the ſucceſs of a well conducted huſbandry, is not underſtood in India. A courſe extending beyond the year, has never been dreamt of by a Bengal farmer; in the ſucceſſion of crops within the year, he is guided by no choice of an article adapted to reſtore the land impoveriſhed by a former crop. His attention being fixed on white corn, other cultivation only employs the intervals of leiſure, which the ſeaſons of white corn allow to the land and to labour. It is ſcarcely poſſible to ſpecify the different courſes which obtain in a practice regulated by no other principle than convenience of time; it is no leſs difficult to enumerate the various combinations of different articles growing together upon the ſame field, or in the ſtubble of a former harveſt, or ſown for a future crop before the preceding harveſt be gathered.

A competent notion may be formed of this practice, by conceiving a farmer eager to obtain the utmoſt poſſible produce from his land without any conſideration of the impoveriſhment of the ſoil. It may be judged that this avidity diſappoints itſelf, as the ſeveral articles deprive each other of nouriſhment, and as the land impoveriſhed makes bad returns for the labour and ſeed.

In moſt ſituations the land overreaped in this manner ſoon requires to be recruited; the Indian allows it a lay, but never a fallow. For this there might be ſome apology, did management of live ſtock give to lay all the benefit which belongs to this method; but as this is not the caſe, the putting their lands to reſt is the moſt inexplicable part of their whole ſyſtem. When it has lain long in this ſtate, the inefficacy of the Bengal plough is ſuch that it muſt be preceded by the ſpade; and the expence of this proceſs is ſo conſiderable, that alſo lays are rated, in the Ayeen Acbery, at a ſmaller aſſeſſment, from the difficulty and expence of breaking them up.

10. If exhauſted lands in this country are ill managed by being put lay, they

they are ſtill worſe treated in reſpect to manure. The application of dung as a fuel, has almoſt entirely cancelled its uſes as a manure. The cattle for labour, and for ſuſtenance, are moſtly fed on ſmall commons, or other paſturage, intermixed with arable land, or fed at home on ſtraw. The cattle for breeding, and for the dairy, are fed in numerous herds upon the foreſts or downs: wherever fed, their dung is carefully collected for fuel: the uſe of this article, as a manure, is reſtricted to ſugar cane, mulberry, tobacco, and poppy: and in theſe crops it is applied from neceſſity; becauſe few lands, without this ſtimulus, are ſufficiently rich to raiſe theſe productions. Some Europeans have concluded, from the practice of the Hindoos, that manure in a hot climate was unneceſſary for corn crops: the Chineſe, however, are of all nations the moſt induſtrious in procuring this manure, and the ſuperiority of their crops is a full juſtification of the practice.

11. The want of incloſures may be ranked among the defects of Hindoo huſbandry, ſince cultivation ſuffers very conſiderably from the treſpaſs of cattle. A herdſman is but a poor ſubſtitute for a dyke; he ſuffers not the cattle to reſt, an object of no ſmall importance; and by his occaſional negligences the crops are often hurt. Were all the land under cultivation, as in China, the benefit of encloſure might not be great; but where poſſeſſions are left partly in graſs, the advantage of having them encloſed, and ſubdivided, muſt be apparent.

12. From the want of drill huſbandry, and fallows, the land is but imperfectly cleaned, a circumſtance highly prejudicial to every crop. After the grain has riſen, the rapid growth of weeds demands much labour, and more particularly during the rains, when vegetation is far more rapid than in any European climate. This operation is always tedious, and imperfectly executed in broad-caſt crops. The eye is eaſily reconciled to ſee the labourer ſitting to this work, and ſcratching with a ſhort hoe among the promiſcuous grains, where the labour of a day is not equivalent to that of an hour in drilled crops. Wherever a country fully peopled, as in China, and all hot climates, of culture of the garden is transferred to the field; almoſt every ſpecies of grain is drilled, and perfect cleanneſs for the admiſſion of air, and for allowing the full growth of the plants is an indiſpenſible requiſite of correct huſbandry. Even ſugar cane, a plant of all others the beſt adapted to the drill huſbandry, is in the upper provinces planted thick, and in promiſcuous clumps, which neither admit of ſtirring the ground, the ſuppreſſion of weeds, nor the free circulation of air: circumſtances which alone demonſtrate the imperfection of this branch of huſbandry.

13. The want of capital employment in agriculture and manufactures, cripples every enterpriſe in Hindoſtan. It not only confines and cramps the operations of the huſbandman, but prevents the diviſion of labour, and conſequently the ſkill of every tradeſman. Here every manufacturer working on his own account, conducts the whole proceſs of his art, from the formation of his tools to the ſale of his production. Unable to wait the market, or anticipate its demand, he can only follow his regular occupation, when called to it by the wants of his neighbours. In the interval he muſt apply to ſome other employment in immediate requeſt; and the labours of agriculture, ever wanted, are the general reſource. Thus every labourer and artiſan, who has frequent occaſion to recur to the labours of the field, becomes himſelf a tenant. Such farmers, however, are ill qualified either to plan or execute a well judged ſyſtem of huſbandry, and are idly employed, to the great waſte of their time, in carrying to market the paltry produce of their ſmall farms.

If India had a capital in the hands of enterpriſing proprietors, who employed it in huſbandry and manufactures, theſe arts would be improved; and with a greater quantity and better productions, the ſituations of labourers would be leſs precarious and more affluent, although the greateſt part of the profit might reſt with the owners of the capital. In agriculture, particularly, which is the baſis of proſperity, the want of capital is a bar to all improvement. Supplied with it larger farms would be occupied, greater enterpriſe, and better information would be enſue; and thus the various obſtacles

obſtacles to its ſucceſs would be diſcovered and overcome.

14. But the great impediment to improved huſbandry in India has ever been the want of ſecure leaſes, and a permanent intereſt in their poſſeſſions. Hence the levying of rents in general have been a continued ſcene of fraud and evaſion on one part, counteracted by plunder and oppreſſion on the other. The nature and variety of the different tenures has been intricate and complex, almoſt beyond conception; and the conſequence has been ſpecific or ſecure. In India the revenue of the ſtate is, in fact, the land rent; hence the management of finances has a more immediate influence on agriculture here, than any other part of the adminiſtration. The tenant who had nothing to proteſt him againſt a whole army ſent to collect the revenue, but the doubtful clauſes of an obſcure leaſe, was perfectly defenceleſs, and often plundered. This precarious ſituation, without an aſcertained intereſt for a ſufficient time, has fully demonſtrated that no ſpirited agriculture can ever be expected in ſimilar circumſtances.

THE HINDOO METHOD OF CULTIVATING THE SUGAR CANE.

FROM THE SAME.

DR ROXBURGH, whoſe purſuits after botanical knowledge are now ſo well known, has given an ample account of this branch of Indian huſbandry; and in the diſtrict where he reſided, little can be added to his remarks in elucidating the practice.

'Among the natives of India, he obſerves, the tranſitions from one ſtage of improvement to another are ſo exceedingly ſlow, as ſcarce to deſerve the name, except it be the few who have benefited by the example of Europeans. They naturally poſſeſs a ſtrong diſinclination to depart from the beaten path eſtabliſhed from time immemorial; however, when they ſee a certain proſpect of gain, with little additional trouble, they have frequently been known to adopt our practices. We ourſelves ought now generally to keep in view, and to inſtil into their minds this maxim, that every new propoſition, merely on account of its novelty, muſt not be rejected, otherwiſe our knowledge would no longer be progreſſive, and every kind of improvement muſt ceaſe.

'At a period, like the preſent, when the importation of Eaſt India ſugar has become ſo much an object of importance to Britain, in conſequence of the preſent ſtate of ſome of the beſt of the Weſt India ſugar iſlands, every enquiry that may tend to open new ſources from whence that wholeſome commodity may be procured, at the cheapeſt rate, is of national importance.

'I believe there are few diſtricts in the Company's extenſive dominions where there will not be found large tracts of land fit for the culture of the ſugar cane: yet I know, from experience, the introduction of a new branch of agriculture, among the natives, to be attended with infinite trouble; therefore, where we find a province or diſtrict, in which the culture of the cane, and the working of ſugar has been in practice from time immemorial, there we may expect, without much exertion, to be able to encreaſe the culture, and improve, if neceſſary, the quality.

In the northern provinces, as well as in Bengal, Coilpain, &c. large quantities of ſugar and jagery are made; it is only in the Rajamundry and Ganjam diſtricts of theſe northern parts, where the cane is cultivated for mak-

ing ſugars. I will confine my obſervations to the firſt, where I have reſided between ten and eleven years.

This branch of agriculture, in the above-mentioned Sircar, is chiefly carried on in the Peddapore, and Pettapore, along the banks of the Elyſeram river, which, though ſmall, has a conſtant flow of water in it the whole year round, ſufficiently large, not only to water the ſugar plantations during the dryeſt ſeaſons, but alſo a great variety of other productions; ſuch as paddy, ginger, turmeric, yams, chillies. This ſtream of water during the dryeſt ſeaſons, renders the land adjoining, I preſume, more fertile than almoſt any other in India, and particularly fit for the growth of the ſugar cane.

In theſe two Zemindaries, from 350 to 700 *Viſſums*; or from 700 to 1400 acres of land, (the Viſſum being two acres,) is annually employed for rearing the ſugar cane, more or leſs, according to the demand for ſugar: for they could, and would with pleaſure, if they were certain of a market, grow and manufacture more that ten times the uſual quantity. It is very profitable; and there is abundance of very proper land; all they want is a certain market for their ſugar.

Beſides the above-mentioned, a third more may be made on the Delta of the Godavery.

From the ſame ſpot they do not attempt to raiſe a ſecond crop, oftener than every third or fourth year. The cane impoveriſhes it ſo much, that it muſt reſt, or be employed during the two or three intermediate years, for the growth of ſuch plants as are found to improve the ſoil, of which the Indian farmer is a perfect judge. They find the leguminous tribe the beſt for that purpoſe.

The method of cultivating the cane, and manufacturing the ſugar by the natives, hereabouts, is like all their other works, exceedingly ſimple. The whole apparatus, a few pair of bullocks excepted, does not amount to more than fifteen or twenty pagodas: as many thouſand pounds are generally, I believe, neceſſary to ſet out the Weſt India planter.

The ſoil that ſuits the cane beſt, in this climate, is a rich vegetable earth, which, on expoſure to the air, crumbles down into a very fine mould: it is alſo neceſſary for it to be of ſuch a level, as allows it to be watered from the river by ſimply damming it up, which almoſt the whole land adjoining to this river admits of, and yet ſo high as to be eaſily drained during heavy rains.

Such a ſoil, and in ſuch a ſituation, having been well meliorated by various crops of leguminous plants, or fallowing for two or three years, is ſlightly manured, or has had cattle pent upon it. A favourite manure with the Hindoo farmer is the rotten ſtraw of the green and black peſſalloo. During the months of April and May, it is repeatedly ſtirred with the common Hindoo plough, which ſoon brings this rich looſe ſoil into very excellent order. About the end of May or beginning of June, the rains uſually ſet in, by frequent heavy ſhowers. Now is the time to plant the cane: but ſhould the rains hold back, the prepared field is watered by flooding from the river, and when perfectly wet like ſoft mud, whether from the rain or from the river, the cane is planted.

The method is moſt ſimple: labourers with baſkets, of the cuttings, with one or two joints each, arrange themſelves along one ſide of the field; they walk ſide by ſide, in as ſtraight a line as their eye or judgment enables them, dropping the ſets at the diſtance of about eighteen inches in the rows, and four feet aſunder from row to row: other labourers follow, and with the foot preſs the ſet about two inches into the ſoft mud-like ſoil; this, with a ſweep or two with the ſole of the foot, they moſt eaſily and readily cover; nothing more is done. If the weather is moderately ſhowery, till the young ſhoots are ſome two or three inches high, the earth is then looſened a few inches around them with a ſmall weeding iron, ſomething like a carpenter's chiſel: ſhould the ſeaſon prove dry, the field is occaſionally watered from the river, continuing to weed, and to keep the earth looſe about the ſtools.

In Auguſt, two or three months from the time of planting, ſmall trenches are cut through the field, at ſhort diſtances, and ſo contrived as to drain off the water, ſhould the ſeaſon prove too wet for the canes, which is frequently the caſe, and would render their juices weak and unprofitable: the farmer, therefore,

therefore, never fails to have his field plentifully and judiciously interfected with drains, while the cane is fmall, and before the time of the violent rains. Should the feafon prove too dry, thefe drains ferve to conduct the water from the river, through the field, and alfo to carry off what does not foak into the earth in a few hours; for, fay they, if water is permitted to remain upon the field for a greater length of time, the cane would fuffer by it, fo that they reckon thefe drains indifpenfibly neceffary; and on their being well contrived depends, in a great meafure, their future hopes of profit. Immediately after the field is trenched, the canes are all propped; this is an operation I do not remember to have feen mentioned by any writer on this fubject, and is, perhaps, peculiar to thefe parts. It is done as follows:

The canes are now about three feet high, and generally from three to fix from each fet that has taken root, and from what we may call the ftool; the lower leaves of each cane are firft carefully wrapt up round it, fo as to cover it completely in every part, a fmall ftrong bamboo, eight or ten feet long, is then ftuck into the earth in the middle of each ftool, and the canes are tied to it: this fecures them in an erect pofition, and gives the air free acceſs round every part. As the canes advance in fize, they continue wrapping them round with the lower leaves, as they begin to wither, and to tie them to the prop bamboos higher up, during which time, if the weather is wet, they keep the trenches open; and if a drought prevails, they water them occafionally from the river, cleaning and loofening the ground every five or fix weeks. Tying the leaves fo carefully round the cane, they fay, prevents them from cracking and fplitting with the fun, helps to render the juice richer, and prevents their branching out round the fides: it is certain that you never fee a branchy cane here.

In January and February, the canes are ready to cut, which is about nine months from the time of planting; of courfe I need not defcribe it. Their height, when ftanding in the field, will now be from eight to ten feet, foliage included; and the naked cane from an inch to an inch and a quarter in diameter.

A mill or two, or even more, according to the fize of the field, is erected, when wanted, in the open air; generally under the fhade of large mango trees, of which there are great abundance hereabouts. The mill is fmall, exceedingly fimple, and at the fame time efficacious. The juice as faft as expreffed, is received into common earthen pots, ftrained and put into boilers, which are in general of an oval form, compofed of ill made thick plates, of country iron, rivetted.

Thefe boilers hold from eighty to one hundred gallons; in each they put from twenty-four to thirty gallons of the ftrained juice: the boiler is placed over a draft furnace, which makes the fire burn with great violence, being fupplied with a ftrong draught of air through a large fubterraneau paffage, which alfo ferves for an afh-pit. At firft the fire is moderate, but as the fcum is taken off, a point they are not very nice about in thefe parts, as they look to quantity more than quality, the fire is by degrees increafed, fo as to make the liquor boil very fmartly; nothing whatever is added to make the fcum to rife, or the fugar to train, except when the planter wants a fmall quantity for his own or a friend's ufe; in this cafe he adds ten or twelve pints of fweet milk to every twenty-four or thirty gallons, or each boiler of juice, which no doubt improves the quality of the fugar: the fcum with this addition comes up more abundantly, and is more carefully removed.

The liquor is never here removed into a fecond boiler, but is in the fame boiled down to a proper conſiſtence, which they gueſs by the eye, and by the touch; the fire is then withdrawn, and in the fame veſſel allowed to cool a little. When it becomes pretty thick, they ſtir it about with ſtirring ſticks, till it begins to take the form of ſugar; it is then taken out and put upon mats, made of the leaves of the palmira tree, (*Boraſſus flabelliformis*), when the ſtirring is continued till it is cold; it is then put up in pots, baſkets, &c. till a merchant appears to buy it.

The Hindoo name of this ſugar is Panſadurry; its colour is fairer than moſt of the raw ſugars made in our Weſt India iſlands; but is is of a clammy unctuous nature, abſorbing much moiſture in wet weather, ſometimes

ſufficient to melt a great deal of it, if not carefully ſtowed in ſome dry place, where ſmoke has acceſs to it.

Many of the planters prefer that ſort of ſugar which they call Bellum, and Europeans Jagary; becauſe it keeps well during the wet weather, if laid up in a dry place. It generally bears a lower price; yet, they ſay, this diſadvantage is often over-balanced by their being able to keep it with only a trifling waſtage, till a market occurs, for the farmer has often to wait for a market for his ſugar; beſides, canes of inferior quality anſwer for jagary, when unfit for ſugar.

The proceſs for making jagary differs from thoſe above deſcribed, in having a quantity of quick lime thrown into the boiler with the cane juice, about a ſpoonful and a half for every ſix or ſeven gallons of the juice. Here they do not remove the ſcum, but let it mix with the liquor; and when of a proper conſiſtence, about four or five ounces of Gangeley (oil of Seſamum orientale), are added to each boiler of liquor, now ready to be removed from the fire; theſe are well mixed, and then poured into ſhallow pits dug in the ground. They are generally about three feet long, and a half broad, and three inches deep, with a mat ſpread at the bottom, which is ſlightly ſtrewed with quick lime. In a ſhort time the liquor incorporates into a thick ſolid maſs; theſe large cakes they wrap up in dry leaves, and lay by for ſale.

Their jagary is of a darker colour than the ſugar, and contains more impurities, owing to the careleſs manner in which they prepare it, by allowing all the ſcum to incorporate with the liquor.

The half viſſum, or one acre of ſugar cane, in a tolerable ſeaſon, yields about ten candy of ſugar, or rather more, if made into jagary: each candy weighs about 560 lb. and is worth on the ſpot from ſixteen to twenty-four rupees. In the Weſt Indies, ſo far as my information goes, the cane yields from fourteen to twenty hundred weight of their raw ſugar, worth on the iſland abont 20 l. of their currency. Here the produce is more than double; but on account of its inferior quality, and the low price it bears on the ſpot, the produce does not yield a great deal more money than in the Weſt Indies. However, as the labour is incomparably cheaper, the Indian planter muſt make much larger profits.

The ſituation of all the lands hereabouts is exactly alike, being in the middle of an extenſive plain adjoining the river; the ſoil in all is alſo much alike, ſo that the produce is nearly equal in all, when no unfavourable circumſtances happen. The ſame reſult is further eſtabliſhed by the quantity of ſugar a meaſure of juice will yield. Here it is almoſt always, except in a very rainy ſeaſon, or in lodged or wormy canes, about one-ſixth part; or ſix pounds of juice yield one pound of ſugar. In Jamaica, Mr Beckford ſays, that on an average eighteen hundred gallons of juice may be reckoned to yield an hogſhead of ſugar, or ſixteen hundred weight, that is, one of ſugar to eight of juice. This proves our juice to be one-fourth richer than theirs.

From the above calculation, it is evident that all the lands in this neighbourhood are better adapted to this culture than the lands of Jamaica; for here they not only yield a larger crop of canes, but the juice is alſo richer: and were our planters here to bring the molaſſes into account, employed in the Weſt Indies for the diſtillation of rum, their profits would be ſtill greater. At preſent this refuſe is given to cattle, or carried away by the labourers for whatever they think proper. It is thus productive of more real benefit, than if converted into ardent ſpirits. The natives in other parts of India are, however, well acquainted with the method of making both rum and arrack, nor have they learned this pernicious proceſs from Europeans, as ſome have ſuppoſed.

In this country the canes, while growing, are ſubject to fewer accidents than in the Weſt Indies. I will mention them briefly:

1. A very hot ſeaſon is the worſt; it injures the canes greatly, rendering them of a reddiſh colour, yielding a poor unprofitable juice; here they reckon the ſmall, heavy, pale yellow cane the beſt.

2. Storms, unleſs they are very violent, do no great harm, becauſe the canes are propped; however, if they are once laid down, they become branchy and thin, yielding a poor, watery

watery juice, and to this they are ſometimes liable.

3. The worm is another evil which generally viſits them every few years: a beetle depoſits its egg in the young cane; the grubs of theſe remain in the plant, living on its meduliary parts, till they are metamorphoſed into the pupa ſtate. Sometimes this evil is ſo great as to injure a ſixth or an eighth part of a field; but what is worſe, the diſeaſe is commonly general where it happens, few fields eſcaping.

4. The flower is the laſt accident they reckon upon, although it ſcarcely deſerves the name; for it rarely happens, and never but to a very ſmall portion of ſome few fields: Thoſe canes that flower have very little juice left: and it is by no means ſo ſweet as the reſt.

The lands occupied with the ſugar cane in the Zemindaries of Peddapore, and Pettapore, excluſive of thoſe iſlands formed by the mouths of the Godavery, amount to five hundred and fifty viſſums, or eleven hundred acres, and their annual produce is forty-four hundred weight per acre: their whole produce will therefore be twenty-ſeven hundred hogſheads of eighteen hundred weight each, or about one-fourth part of the produce of the iſland of Jamaica. It is acknowledged by all, that this quantity might be increaſed to any extent, with advantage to the zemindar, the farmer, and government. This obſervation applies with double force to the upper provinces on the Ganges, as far as Rohilcund, where the ſugar lands are of indefinite extent, and where, with a culture infinitely leſs perfect than that above deſcribed, great quantities of ſugar and jagary are already made by the natives. All that ſeems neceſſary in theſe immenſe tracts, is to open a market to the Ryut, and ſecure to him a ſtrict agreement to his leaſe with the Zemindar.

Tranſgreſſions in this point are the great bar to Indian huſbandry; for in a good ſeaſon the Zemindar raiſes his demands, and makes the farmers of all denominations pay probably a fourth more than the rent agreed on. Cuſtom has rendered this iniquity common, and the farmer has no idea of obtaining redreſs of an evil, which to him appears as irremediable as the ravages of the elements.

POETRY.

For the Scots Magazine.

A POETICAL ADDRESS TO BRITONS,

ON THE MENACED INVASION.

WHEN Carnage drops her gory blade,
And war ſuſpends the trade of death,
And peace with gentle fingers twines
Round valour's brows her olive wreath:

Let then the cheerful voice of joy
Be heard along Britannia's plains;
Let beauty ſpread her conqueſts wide,
And youth exultant bleſs the chains.

Let then the poet raiſe the ſong,
As pleaſure prompts, and fancy fires;
Let love in melting meaſures flow,
And rapture ſtrike the warbling wires.

But oh! when o'er our native iſle
The dreadful ſtorm of battle lours,
Shall ſloth unnerve the arm of ſtrength,
And lux'ry damp our active pow'rs?—

Shall youth with fond delight purſue
The vain fantaſtic charms of dreſs;
And bards, in flowery numbers wave,
Fictitious themes of ſoft diſtreſs?

When, ſoon perhaps the ſword of war
May dye thoſe charms in ſtreaming gore,
And heed no more the Minſtrel's lays,
Than zephyr's breath, or ocean's roar.

Inactive ſhall we ſit, and hear
Yon deſpot's proud inſulting boaſt?

Riſe Britons!—oh indignant riſe!
And chaſe th' invaders from our coaſt.

Think on the wreaths our fathers won,
In many a well conteſted fray—
Remember Creſſy's bloody field,
And Agincourt's tremendous day:

Remember Anne's victorious reign,
When Churchill led our fires to fame,
And taught the abject ſons of France
To tremble at a Briton's name:

Remember all the glorious deeds,
By George's conq'ring warriors wrought!
When Chatham held the reins of pow'r,
And Wolfe, illuſtrious hero! fought.

And think how late your Duncan ſpread
Deſtruction round Batavia's ſhore;
And Nelſon dy'd the waves of Nile
With many a haughty Frenchman's gore.

How late on Egypt's ſun-burnt ſands,
By Scotia's dauntleſs heroes ſlain,
Yon boaſter's proudeſt legions fell,
And drench'd with blood the thirſty plain!

Riſe, Britons! riſe! unſheath the ſword,—
'Tis freedom your aſſiſtance craves,
And boldly tell our haughty foe
That "Britons never ſhall be ſlaves!"

See! bright Auſonia's vine-clad hills,
Her olive groves and myrtle bowers;
Her plains with golden harveſts crown'd
Her ſacred fanes and ancient towers.

Subjected to a Tyrant's ſway,
Are ſtript of all her wonted charms;
Her prieſts are ſlain, her ſons enſlaved,
Her daughters in the Spoiler's arms!

Batavia too has felt his ſword,
And bends obedient to his nod,
Suſtains her victor in his power,
Yet bleeds beneath his iron rod.

Helvetia—oh! muſt thou too bow
Thy neck to Gallia's painful yoke?
And are thy champions all deſtroy'd?
And is thy high-born ſpirit broke.

Alas! no more the fervid flame
Of freedom in each boſom glows,
And he who feels her ardent fire
Can only mourn her country's woes!

Oh Britons! 'tis that we have dar'd
To curb the proud uſurper's pow'r,
That now with fierce reſentment fir'd
He ventures to invade our ſhore.

Riſe, Freemen! riſe! unſheath the ſword—
Britannia your aſſiſtance craves,
And boldly tell our haughty foe
That "Britons never ſhall be ſlaves!"

Shall Gallia's vain imperious lord,
His ſtandards plant on Britiſh ground?
Shall there the ſhouts of triumph ſwell!
Shall there a victor's trumpet ſound?

Shall lawleſs anarchy and rage,
The ſacred courts of juſtice tread;
And tear Britannia's ancient crown
From George's venerable head?

Shall Rapine's ſanguinary bands,
Bedew our native vales with blood?
Thoſe vales where freedom ſtill has dwelt,
And peace has fixt her lov'd abode!

Shall they who nurs'd our infant minds,
And bade our youthful thoughts expand,
Be loaded with a gallic chain,
Or murder'd by a ruffian's hand?

Shall ſhe whoſe ſoul enchanting ſmile
Has often charm'd our cares to reſt,
Be torn from our protecting arms,
And folded to a villain's breaſt?

No! Britons, no!—by all the joys,
As fathers or as ſons we prove;
By all the boſom thrilling ties
That bind us to the maid we love.

By that dear land whoſe ev'ry grove
With freedom's charming voice has rung,
Since Oſſian tun'd his celtic harp,
Till Campbell's raptured lyre was ſtrung:

By all the trophies we have won
On Delta's plain or Texel's wave;
By all the wreaths of fame that bloom.
On Abercromby's honour'd grave:

By the bleſt ſpirits of the brave,
Who oft from yonder ſkies ſublime
Have with triumphant eye ſurvey'd,
The glories of their wonted clime:

By that propitious Power, who ſtill
Has bleſt us with his guardian ſmile—
Yon murd'rous Tyrant ne'er ſhall wave
His banners o'er our conquered iſle!

While flow the purple ſtreams of life,
In bounding tides thro' ev'ry vein;
Thoſe rights for which our Sires have bled
Their fearleſs ſons ſhall ſtill maintain.

Is there who with ungen'rous aims
Deſigns to aid his country's foe?
Oh, ne'er may he the bleſſings taſte
That liberty and peace beſtow!

Is there a wretch whoſe timid ſoul
Can harbour ſhameful thoughts of flight?
Hence, coward! hence to deſert caves
And hide thee from a Briton's ſight!

But ye whoſe vig'rous pulſes beat
In uniſon with war's alarms,
Who ſcorn the blandiſhments of peace,
When freedom calls her ſons to arms.

Who ſwear to conquer,—or to die;
Bleſt martyrs in your country's cauſe,
To you Britannia gives in charge,
Her King, her liberties, and laws.

May ſacred concord knit your hearts
In one reſolv'd united whole,
And danger only ſerve to rouſe
The fervours of each warrior's ſoul.

Tho' Gallia then her ſquadrons pour,
And hem with fleets our ſeagirt ſhore;

Yet firm we'll ſtand as Albion's rocks,
When billows beat and tempeſts roar.

ARBROATH. W.—— A.——.

For the Scots Magazine.

AN EVENING WALK

ON THE BANKS OF CORRIE.

By J. Johnſtone, Craighouſe, Annandale.

HARD toil is o'er, the evening's cool,
O Corrie I'll to thee repair;
Thy rural charms can ſooth my ſoul,
And baniſh each corroding care.

Fair on thy banks the oſiers grow,
That bending lave thy cryſtal ſtream;
And here th' empurpl'd meadows glow,
Ting'd by yon ſun's meridian beam.

The birch and ſaugh in winding rows,
Caſt o'er thy meads a quivering ſhade,
And form ſweet bowers of calm repoſe,
For wandering lovers thither led.

From yonder glade the mellow thruſh
And linnet, pour their muſic ſtill,
And hark! it pours from every buſh,
That ſcatter'd maſks yon ſloping hill.

The lowing herds gaze round and round,
And on thy hills the lambkins play,
And oft thy teeming vales reſound,
The love-lorn ſhepherd's plaintive lay.

But yonder comes my charming Jean
The ſylvan ſcenery to adorn,
How light ſhe trips the flow'ry green,
Pure as the ruddy ſtar of morn:

Sweet Corrie doſt thou glide along,
And ſweet thy flow'ry meads to ſee;
Sweet is thy lark and linnet's ſong,
But ſweeter far is Jean to me.

Thou ſable cloud that paſſeſt by,
With ſilver ſkirts like my love's hair;
Say? in thy paſſage through the ſky,
Did'ſt thou e'er ſhade a nymph ſo fair.

With her ſuperior charms impreſt,
All elſe beſides quite diſappear;
I claſp her to my glowing breaſt
And breath the ardent vow ſincere.

We hie us to yon lonely glade,
Where loud the woodland minſtrels ſing,
Where milk-white thorns their flowrets ſhade,
Borne off by zephyr's thieviſh wing.

There we'll enjoy the enraptur'd hour,
Which pure affections ever bring;
No cold diſtruſt our brows ſhall lower,
Nor guilt point fell remorſe's ſting.

For the Scots Magazine.

VERSES,

ON THE UNTIMELY FATE OF LADY HELEN SINCLAIR,

Second daughter of the Earl of Caithness.

AS when amid the graſs which wanton grows,
The blooming daiſy, by the ſcythe is ſhorn,
Or as the bluſhing pink, or fragrant roſe,
By ſome rude hand, is from its honours torn.

So fell, lopt off by death's unheeding hand,
The BEAUTOUS HELEN in the pride of years;
She fell, an honour to the Britiſh land,
To whom the muſe her tribute pays—*of tears*,
Her Spartan nameſake, famed in Homer's verſe,
Whoſe pride, as victims, many chiefs deſir'd
Dar'd thro' each clime, her beauty to rehearſe,
And boaſt the heroes who for her expir'd.
She, whom an humbler bard to view diſplays
To vice a ſtranger, and to fame unknown;
Unſkill'd in flatter'y, which deceit pourtrays,
Had but her worth and charms to call her own,
Her pride (if ſuch a name her wiſh requires,)
Was not to conquer or deſtroy mankind,
But with that goodneſs which ſuch ſouls inſpires,
The wants to leſſen of the wretched kind.

Thrice happy thou, thus early to avoid,
The toils and troubles of life's fleeting hours;
And gain the bliſs of Heav'n, where unalloy'd,
Thy endleſs peace, no care, no ſorrow ſours.
Perhaps ſome jealous ſpouſe his guiltleſs wife,
With baſe ſuſpicions might at length deſtroy,
Perhaps ſome graceleſs ſon his parents life,
By crimes might ſhorten, or curtail her joy.
Then, ſince no grief, no tears can thee reſtore,
Since ſighs and boding groans can nought avail:
O ceaſe, your loſs, fond parents, to deplore,
O ceaſe, the angelic maid in vain to wail.
Hark! hark! the trumpet ſounds, the tomb is rent,
From thence I heard a form ſeraphic ſing;
"O grave where fly thy vauntings to torment,
"O death where ends thy once triumphant ſting!"

Harrow, Middleſex, November 1803. G. S.

IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Nov. 23. The Houſe met and proceeded to St James's with their addreſs, having previouſly adjourned to the 30th.

30. The Lord Chancellor reported his Majeſty's anſwer to the addreſs, when after going through ſome unimportant buſineſs, the Houſe reſolved into a committee of privileges.

Dec. 2. On the motion of the Duke of Norfolk the Zouch Peerage was ordered to be taken into conſideration on the firſt Tueſday of February.

On the motion of Lord Walſingham, the Rouſs Peerage was ordered to be taken into conſideration on the third Tueſday of February next.

The Duke of Norfolk gave intimation of his intention to avail himſelf of the opportunity of the bill for the relief of Curates, who by the reſidents act might be injured, now pending in the Houſe of Commons, being introduced into that Houſe, to bring in a bill for preventing the arreſt of Clergymen, while in the actual exerciſe of their parochial duties.

Scots Appeal.

6. Mr Romilly and Mr Nolan were heard as Counſel for the Reſpondents in the Scotch Appeal Chriſtie againſt Proudfoot. This was an action for having it declared that the ſons and ſons in-law of the Members of the Incorporated Trades of the Burgh of Perth had a right to be admitted Members of the Guildry Incorporation, or Merchant Burgeſſes, upon payment of certain lower fees than thoſe paid by ſtrangers. The ground of the claim was *uſage*, and the principal defence was, that in the caſes adduced, the entries had been made *ex gratia*. The Court of Seſſion, by two different interlocutors, ſuſtained the defence; and the Lord Chancellor, ſeeing no diſtinct evidence, whether in the caſes founded on by the defendants the admiſſions had been made *ex jure* or *ex gratia*, thought the Court of Seſſion the beſt judges of the interpretation to be put on an uſage of that nature. On his motion therefore the judgement was affirmed with L. 60 coſts.

7. Lord Hawkeſbury preſented a copy of the convention with Sweden. The Bank of England reſtriction bill was received from the Commons, and read a firſt time.

9. A ſhort converſation took place between Lords Darnley and Hawkeſbury, on the ſubject of the volunteers, the former having aſked, whether it was the intention of Government to propoſe any general regulation reſpecting the volunteers previous to the Chriſtmas receſs, to which Lord Hawkeſbury replied, he knew of no intention of propoſing any ſpecific meaſure previous to the receſs, though he was free to ſay, the moſt ſerious attention of Miniſters was turned towards the ſubject.

In a Committee on the Bank Reſtriction Bill a deſultory converſation took place between Lords King and Hawkeſbury, on the general ſubject. This ended in the rejecting a propoſition of Lord King, for obliging the Bank Directors to publiſh a monthly ſtatement in the Gazette of the number of notes in circulation.

The bill was reported. At the inſtance of Lord Grenville the third reading of the bill was deferred till Monday.

12. A number of bills were forwarded in their reſpective ſtages. The bills for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus act, and for continuing martial law in Ireland, were read a ſecond time, after ſome oppoſition from Lords Grenville and

and King, who contended that no Parliamentary ground had been ſtated for the meaſure.

13. On the motion for the third reading of the Bank Reſtriction Bill,

Lord Grenville ſaid, that he did not mean to oppoſe the bill under the preſent circumſtances of the country, and conſidering that it had ſo often been adopted by Parliament. He was afraid, however, that it was owing to the frequency of its adoption that it had become almoſt a matter of courſe to paſs it; though it had been firſt adopted in a time of great difficulty, and to remedy a temporary inconvenience, the meaſure itſelf had been productive of much evil. He did not wiſh to alarm the country at preſent but it would be better now, than when the remedy ſhould be too late. The circulation of caſh ought to be gradually reſtored, therefore in his opinion, people who had been accuſed of hoarding, ought rather to be praiſed than condemned. His Lordſhip then expatiated at conſiderable length on the danger attending an exceſſive paper circulation, and ſuggeſted the propriety of a committee, to enquire into the ſufficiency of the Bank.

The Bill was read a third time and paſſed.

15. Counſel were heard in the appeal, Keeling, *v.* the India Company, and the farther hearing poſtponed to Monday.

Volunteer Exemptions.

On the order of the day for the third reading of the Volunteer bill being moved,

The Earl of Suffolk roſe, purſuant to the notice he had given, to call their Lordſhips attention to ſubjects which he conſidered of the higheſt importance, and not to oppoſe the preſent bill. His Lordſhip expreſſed his approbation of the volunteer ſyſtem, and his aſſurance of their affording an excellent defence for the country, in caſe the enemy ſhould attempt an invaſion; but regretted the advice he had given, for eſtabliſhing a Military Council, had not been adopted. He did not think it would be proper to attach Field Officers to volunteer corps, as had been propoſed, but approved very much of the ſuggeſtion of adding to them Serjeant Majors from the line. His Lordſhip then proceeded to take a general view of the beſt means of defending the country; recommended the eſtabliſhment of a great military depot in the heart of the country, in Warwickſhire, where almoſt all the inland water communications of England centered; and expatiated on the advantage which might be derived from the erection of martello towers, which had been deſcribed in another place (in the Houſe of Commons, by Mr Windham). He expreſſed his hope that Government would pay particular attention to the formation of the Rifle Corps, which had been of great advantage to the French, and that the ſyſtem of German tactics, which had proved ſo fatal to the Auſtrians, would not be obſtinately adhered to.

The noble Earl wandering from the queſtion, was called to order from different quarters: he therefore concluded by giving his aſſent to the bill.

Lord Grenville declared his intention to refrain from entering into the diſcuſſion either of the plan on which the volunteers had been raiſed, or the means which had been taken to carry it into execution. He was of opinion, however, that the bill was not well calculated to accompliſh the object it had in view, and this he ſuppoſed aroſe from its being introduced at ſo advanced a period of the Seſſion, that there was not ſufficient time allowed for its examination. Inſtead of repealing the proviſions of the two former acts, in ſo far as related to exemptions, and enacting new ones, the proviſions of the preſent bill were ſuperadded to thoſe of the preceding acts, which occaſioned much inconſiſtency and incongruity. As, by one act, five days training exempted volunteers from the militia; and by another, twenty-four days were neceſſary to exempt them from the army of reſerve; the Commanders of the corps were under the neceſſity of making two different returns, when one might have anſwered the ſame purpoſe. They were alſo, by the act 42d of the King, required to return the names of all the members of the corps; while, at the ſame time, they were required to certify, upon honour, that they had not returned any names except thoſe of members intitled to the exemptions. His Lordſhip thought that a volunteer force might be of great ſer-

vice to the country, if employed in aid, and not in the ſtead of regular troops: but he expreſſed his ſtrong diſapprobation of permitting any corps to be governed by Committees, which might tend to the introduction of a ſyſtem that had tended to ſubvert the Monarchy of France. He ſhould not, however, enter into the general queſtion of the volunteer ſyſtem, as an opportunity for conſidering that ſubject would doubtleſs occur in the courſe of the Seſſion.

Lord Hobart obſerved, that though the period of the Seſſion was pretty far advanced with reſpect to the receſs, yet it was very little advanced with reſpect to the whole duration of the Seſſion; there would therefore be ſufficient opportunities afterwards for conſidering the queſtion alluded to. With regard to the noble Lord's objection to the bill itſelf, it appeared to him that it was in the power of any commander of a volunteer corps to return the names of the members who were and who were not exempted by training; but it ought to be remembered that the bill contained a clauſe, in conſequence of which it might be altered or amended in the preſent ſeſſion. The general queſtion of the volunteer ſyſtem was one of great importance, and the attention of Government, he aſſured the noble Lord, was turned to it; but it required much conſideration before any propoſition could be ſubmitted to Parliament.

Lord Grenville explained, and reſtated his opinion reſpecting the incongruities of the acts relative to the volunteer corps.

Lord Romney applauded the zeal which he had witneſſed among the volunteer corps; but could not help obſerving, that the diſtinctions which prevailed among the corps occaſioned great jealouſies. He therefore recommended, that they ſhould be placed on the ſame footing with reſpect to ſervices and allowances. He thought it would be proper that all the corps ſhould ſerve 84 days, which would be the beſt means of placing them on an equality.

Lord Hobart remarked, that the ſuggeſtion of the Noble Lord related to a ſubject of great delicacy and difficulty. To place all the volunteer corps on the ſame footing with reſpect to allowances, would occaſion an expence of not leſs than four millions.

Lord Darnley was well pleaſed to learn that the general queſtion of the volunteer ſyſtem was likely to come ſoon under their Lordſhips conſideration. He joined with Lord Grenville in diſapproving any attempts to place volunteer corps under the direction of Committees.

Lord Hawkeſbury admitted the neceſſity of a full reviſion of the volunteer ſyſtem; and ſtated that that was a ſubject which occupied the ſerious attention of his Majeſty's Government, and on which ſome propoſitions would be ſubmitted to Parliament after the receſs. The preſent bill was introduced not with the view of calling the attention of Parliament to the general queſtion, but chiefly for the purpoſe of doing away a doubt which had ariſen reſpecting the right of volunteer corps which had not received arms, to the exemptions under the acts. In any future conſideration of the volunteer ſyſtem, their Lordſhips, he hoped would not fail to take into their calculation the various advantages and diſadvantages which belonged to that deſcription of force. Having dwelt for ſome time on the diſtinction between volunteer corps and regular troops, he recommended it to their Lordſhips to have, in the examination of this queſtion hereafter, two leading circumſtances in view, namely, the original principles on which the volunteer force was raiſed, and the œconomy to the public, of which that kind of force was ſuſceptible.

The Duke of Clarence concurred in every thing which had fallen from the Noble Lord (Grenville) who ſpoke ſecond in the debate. His Highneſs thought right to abſtain from all diſcuſſion on the general queſtion of the volunteer ſyſtem, for two reaſons;—1ſt, On account of the ſhort time which the Houſe had to ſit before the receſs; and, 2dly, Becauſe he was happy to hear from two of his Majeſty's Miniſters, that the ſtate of the volunteer force occupied the attention of Government, and ſoon will be the ſubject of diſtinct propoſitions to Parliament. The bill was then read a ſecond time, and ordered to be committed to-morrow.

17. The Duke of Norfolk brought in a bill to exempt from arreſt and civil proceſs, rectors, vicars, and perpetual curates

curates. The bill was read a firſt time. His grace then moved that the bill be printed. He obſerved, that the bill recited ſeveral acts of Parliament relative to the privileges of the clergy, ſome of which were paſſed in the reign of Henry VIII. The queſtion, it would therefore be perceived, involved much clerical law, on which account he would not have brought it forward, had he not firſt conſulted a gentleman of high legal authority, peculiarly converſant on the ſubject. His Grace added, that he wiſhed the bill to ſtand over till after the receſs, and in the mean time to be printed.—Agreed,

The volunteer exemption bill went through a Committee, and, upon the report being brough up, the Lord Chancellor made ſeveral verbal amendments, to the end that members leaving their corps after the paſſing of the bill ſhould not be entitled to exemption from the militia and army of reſerve ballots. The bill was then ordered to be read a third time.

Volunteer Exemptions.

Lord Hawkeſbury moved the order of the day for the third reading of the Volunteer Exemption bill.

Lord Fitzwilliam ſtated, that owing to the haſte with which the bill had been carried forward, and a neceſſity that exiſted for his abſence on ſome particular days lately, he had been preſented with no opportunity of delivering his ſentiments on the bill before the Houſe till it arrived at this ſtage. He wiſhed to ſuggeſt that the bill ſhould be re-committed, in order that he might propoſe an amendment to make the exemptions more explicit. The act of 1793, relative to the volunteers, differed materially from thoſe that had paſſed laſt ſeſſion, reſpecting this particular point. By the act of 1793, volunteers were not ſubject to martial law, even when upon actual ſervice; but at the ſame time they are not exempted from the ballot of militia. By the late acts, it appeared that they were in ſome degree ſubject to martial law, and to be liable to fines and impriſonment for non-attendance and bad behaviour. This, however, was a doubtful point—at leaſt doubtful with a great many, whether from the words of the acts, theſe concluſions could be drawn.—The law officers had given their opinion in the affirmative, and on theſe opinions Magiſtrates generally acted; but ſtill a Magiſtrate ſhould be enabled, from the expreſs terms of the act itſelf, to decide upon its import, and was to look to the ſentiments of Parliament, and not to the opinions of lawyers. It was plain, that when the Volunteers entered upon the ſervice, they never had it in contemplation that they were to be ſubject to the ſame laws as that force would be whoſe place they were intended to ſupply; and therefore it was but juſt that all doubts on this point ſhould be cleared up. In order, therefore to have this matter explicitly ſettled by the legiſlature, he moved that the bill ſhould be recommitted.

Lord Hawkeſbury obſerved that his Majeſty's Government had certainly not carried forward this bill with any improper haſte. The object of it was very limited, as it only went to remove a doubt that had ariſen whether the legiſlature intend to exempt a particular deſcription of Volunteers from the Militia and Army of Reſerve. The queſtion referred to by his Lordſhip (Fitzwilliam) was ſtill open for the conderation of Parliament, as this bill did not at all bear upon it, and it was certainly competent for his Lordſhip to bring a bill into the Houſe for the deciſion of the doubt to which he had alluded. Government had admitted that the laws on this ſubject certainly required reviſion; but, in the mean time, without giving any ſpecific pledge that a remedy ſhould be immediately applied, they were willing that Magiſtrates ſhould act upon the opinion of the lawyers, whoſe advice it was thought proper to take; but this bill went merely to ſettle a different point, and therefore the propoſed amendment could not properly be admitted.

Lord Fitzwilliam perſiſted in his motion, alleging that this was a bill which, by its title, related to the volunteers, and that therefore the propoſed amendment might be fairly admitted. He obſerved, that an explanation on this point was looked for by many Magiſtrates and Deputy Lieutenants, who would be reduced to great difficulties, unleſs ſomething of this ſort was done.

The Lord Chancellor obſerved, that the queſtion here was, whether volunteers of a certain deſcription ſhould or ſhould not be exempted from being

balloted for the militia and army of reſerve. The bill was complete for executing the object for which it was intended: and he was of opinion that there was no occaſion for its recommitment. The doubt alluded to by the Noble Lord ought to be the ſubject of another bill; but, without aſcribing too much to the opinion of lawyers, were he Attorney General, he ſhould ſcarcely agree to bring in an explanatory bill on a ſubject where there was no doubt among lawyers in general, as he was no friend to theſe explanations, which were certainly a bad precedent, and when multiplied, as had ſometimes been the caſe, were much worſe to underſtand than the bills they were intended to explain.

Lord Fitzwilliam ſtill perſiſted in his motion.

The Lord Chancellor then ſaid, that as the third reading was firſt moved, he muſt firſt put the queſtion on that point, which was accordingly done, and the bill was read a third time, and paſſed, without a diviſion.

It was then ſent to the Commons, and in the courſe of half an hour afterwards was returned by Mr Serjant and others, ſtating that the Commons had agreed to the amendments.—Adjourned.

Their Lordſhips, after hearing counſel finally in the Appeal, Heighley *v.* the Eaſt India Company, adjourned to the 3d of February.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Continued from p. 804.

Nov. 24. The Houſe, after ordering that a ſupply be granted to his Majeſty, adjourned, and proceeded to St James's with the addreſs.

25. The ſpeaker informed the Houſe that their addreſs had been preſented to his Majeſty, who was pleaſed to return the following moſt gracious anſwer: — "I return you my warmeſt thanks for this dutiful and affectionate addreſs. Such a declaration of your ſentiments cannot fail to afford me the higheſt ſatisfaction; I have a perfect reliance on your ſupport, and the exertions of all my faithful people, to bring the conteſt in which I am engaged to an honourable and ſucceſsful iſſue."

A new writ was ordered for Rye, in the room of Lord Hawkeſbury, called up to the Houſe of Peers, and for Inverneſs, in the room of Comyn Gordon, Eſq; who has accepted the Stewardſhip of one of the Chiltern Hundreds.

Mr C. Dundas reported from the Waterford Committee the abſence of Col. Francis Grant, and moved that his preſence in the future ſittings of that committee be diſpenſed with.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer objected to the motion, on which a converſation enſued between Mr Burland, Mr Tierney, Mr Bragge, and Mr Charles Grant, who ſtated that the colonel was neceſſarily on duty with his regiment in Scotland.

The Speaker made a general reply; when it was ordered, that Col. Grant ſhould attend in his place, on the 7th day of December next.

Mr Jarvis moved for leave to bring in a bill to prevent the deſertion of petty officers and ſeamen from his Majeſty's ſervice, or to deprive his Majeſty of the ſervice of ſuch perſons under pretence of any civil or criminal proceſs.

He ſtated, that of late it became a practice to arreſt, and cauſe ſeamen to be arreſted for debt, and to be taken away from their reſpective ſhips and brought aſhore, merely with a view of taking them out of the ſervice, to which they ſeldom or never returned. The bill therefore would go to compel the ſheriff or other perſon who made ſuch arreſt, to be accountable for their return when the exigency of ſuch arreſt at law ſhould be ſatisfied.

Leave was accordingly given, and the bill being brought in, was read a firſt time, and ordered for a ſecond reading on Tueſday next.

28. Accounts of the permanent taxes up to the 10th of October laſt, were laid upon the table, and ordered to be printed.

Alderman Combe wiſhed to know whether it was intended to bring in a bill to alter or ſimplify the property act of the laſt ſeſſion of Parliament.

Mr Vanſittart replied, that it was not intended by any of his Majeſty's miniſters, to bring before the Houſe any matter to the effect ſtated, during the preſent ſeſſion, but it was determined to give the act in its preſent ſhape *one year's trial*, by which they would have an opportunity of diſcovering at once all its defects, and therefore have

have the means of remedying them by one bill inſtead of many. Alderman Combe anſwered he was ſatisfied.

Mr Vanſittart moved for an eſtimate of the ordinary of the navy and the marine ſervice of the ſame, together with an eſtimate of the wear and tear of ſhips, and alſo eſtimates of guards, garriſons, and land forces, together with that of the ordnance, as likewiſe ſervices not provided for by Parliament and Tranſport ſervice for the year 1804, —all of which were ordered, with an addreſs to that effect, to be preſented to his Majeſty.

On a queſtion from Admiral Berkeley whether the expenſe of building barracks were included in theſe eſtimates, he was anſwered in the negative.

Several election petitions were preſented, viz. Honiton, Carrickfergus, London, Coventry, Stirling, &c. Stirling was ordered to be taken into conſideration on the 1ſt of March next.

29. Ordered, an account of the quantity of ſtrong and ſmall beer charged with duty in England, in the year ending the 5th January laſt. Ordered alſo, that no private petitions be received after 24th February.

30. Colonel Stewart took the oaths and his ſeat, for the burghs of Nairn, Forres, &c. Lord Caſtlereagh obtained leave for a bill to regulate the intereſt to be paid on Eaſt India Bonds.

Bank of England.

On the motion of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the acts relating to the reſtriction of money payments by the Bank of England were read. He then ſaid, that altho' ſome objections might be made to ſuch a reſtriction in time of peace, nothing could be urged againſt its expediency in time of war. He obſerved, that no improper uſe had been made by the bank of the indulgence thus granted to them; on the contrary, they had not iſſued paper in the proportion that they might have done in reſpect of their capital.

After paſſing many compliments on the integrity of that body, he concluded by moving, that leave be given to continue the ſaid reſtriction, for a time to be limited.

On the queſtion being put,

Mr Jekyl took this opportunity to ſignify, that a great and lamentable evil prevailed not only in London, but throughout the whole of the United Kingdom, that was the ſcarcity, the unparalelled ſcarcity, that prevailed of ſmall coin, which had now riſen to ſuch a pitch, that if continued much longer, and if not remedied, he had the authority of the firſt banking houſes in the kingdom to ſay, they muſt ſtop payment of fractional parts of a pound altogether. He had heard of a certain corporation entering into a reſolution of giving an extra value to dollars; how far that would meet the evil he knew not; but this he knew, that ſomething ſhould be done to prevent the hoarding of ſmall gold and ſilver coin, which, to the ſhame of thoſe who were guilty of it, prevailed to ſuch a degree, at a time too when every patriotic principle forbade it.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer acknowledged the truth of theſe aſſertions, and he lamented that ſo mean a ſpirit of monopoly ſhould actuate a perſon at this momentous period; but he aſſured the Hon. Gentleman and the Houſe, that his Majeſty's Miniſters had it in direct contemplation to adopt ſome means of preventing the evil complained of; and, thanking the Hon. Gentleman for his communication, he concluded with expreſſing a hope that thoſe ſuſpected of ſo miſchievous a policy would take warning from this intimation. The motion was then agreed to and a bill ordered.

On a motion that the attendance of John Bedley, Eſq. one of the members of the Waterford Committee, be diſpenſed with, urgent buſineſs requiring him to proceed to Jamaica, the Houſe by a majority of 9 reſolved not to excuſe Mr Bedley's abſence.

In a Committe of Supply, the Houſe granted 100,000 ſeamen for thirteen lunar months; 2,450,000l. for wages; 2,470,000l. for victuals; 3,900,000l. for tear and wear of ſhips, and 225,000l. for ſea ordnance.

Dec. 1. Sir William Scott introduced a bill for enforcing the reſidence of ſtipendiary curates on their cures.

The bills for regulating the intereſt on India bonds, and for reſtraining caſh payments by the Bank of England, were brought in, and read a firſt time. Several other bills were forwarded.

A petition was preſented from certain inhabitants of Liverpool, complaining

ing of the defenceleſs ſtate of the town, and praying that they might be allowed to fortify the town and harbour at their own expence. After a ſhort converſation, it was referred to a Committee.

Mr Wharton, from the Bank of England preſented an account of the number of bank notes in circulation on the 1ſt June, 1ſt July, 1ſt Aug. 1ſt Oct. and 25th Nov. 1803, diſtinguiſhing thoſe under 5l.

The bill for encouraging the reſidence of ſtipendiary curates on their reſpective curacies was read a ſecond time, committed, and the report brought up, and ordered to be taken into further conſideration on Wedneſday next.

The report of the committee on the bill for preventing the deſertion of ſeamen was brought up, and the bill ordered to be read a third time on Monday.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer moved that the Houſe ſhould reſolve itſelf into a committee to conſider of the relief to be granted to the clergy who might be injured by the late act enforcing the reſidence of the clergy on their cures.

Sir Robert Buxton expreſſed his happineſs at any meaſure which could give relief to the clergy. He was averſe, however, to any encreaſe of the burdens with which the people of this country were at preſent loaded.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer ſaid, that the meaſure was only filling up the intention of the Houſe after this relief had actually commenced, and that the whole ſum propoſed to be applied in this way was 80ool. The motion was agreed to, and the report ordered to be received tomorrow.

In a committee of ways and means,

The Chancellor of the Exchequer moved for the renewal of the taxes on malt, cyder, and perry; — the land tax, and a loan of 5,ooo,oool. by means of Exchequer bills, which were ſeverally agreed to, the report brought up, and the committee ordered to ſit again on Monday,

The Secretary at war preſented the army eſtimates for the enſuing year, and gave notice of his intention to move that the ſame be taken into conſideration on Friday next.

Irish Habeas Corpus Bill.

Mr Secretary Yorke moved for leave to bring in bills for continuing the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus act, and the act enacting Martial Law in Ireland. He entered into a detail of the atrocities which had been practiſed in that country, and the humanity which had been practiſed to the rebels. He particularly dwelt on the unhappy fate of Lord Kilwarden, and expreſſed a hope and a conviction that his Right Hon. friend (Mr Addington) would ſubmit to the conſideration of the Houſe, the condition of the family of that worthy Nobleman and Magiſtrate.

Colonel Hutchinſon did not object to the Bill. He lamented the cauſes which rendered it neceſſary, and expreſſed a hope that the people of that country were now conſcious, as expreſſed in his Majeſty's ſpeech, of the ſuperiority of the bleſſings which they enjoyed over any other country. He thought, however, that Miniſters would not do their duty if they did not ſift the ſituation of Ireland to the bottom, and if they did not bring it before the Houſe day after day, and month after month.

General Loftus gave his approbation to the meaſure, becauſe he knew it would meet the approbation of every loyal man in Ireland. The time of war he did not view as the proper period for entering into any extraneous remarks on a ſubject of ſuch importance.

Lord Temple thought that the ſituation of Ireland, and its ſecurity fully warranted the adoption of the meaſures propoſed. As to the obſervation of the Hon. Gentleman, however, that the time of war was not a proper period for entering into conſtitutional diſcuſſions, he begged leave to remind him and the Houſe, that the Union between the two countries was effected in time of war.

Mr Burland declared his conviction that there never did exiſt in Ireland any government more calculated than the preſent, to conciliate the minds of the people, and to bring back that deluded people a ſenſe of their duty, and of their true intereſts.

Lord Caſtlereagh was convinced that the real cauſe of loyalty in Ireland had always been ſufficient to ſupport it; but he thought that an additional reaſon for confiding to the loyal inhabitants the powers veſted in them by the

preſen

preſent Bills. He viewed them as meaſures of lenity to the unhappy perſons whom they were meant to reſtrain.

The motion was then put, and leave given to bring in the Bill.

Irish Martial Law Bill.

When the Speaker was about to put the queſtion on the bill for continuing martial law in Ireland, Mr Burrowes roſe in oppoſition, and urged that the bill might at leaſt be delayed, till the arrival of many Iriſh Members who were not in their places.

Mr Corry and Mr J. C. Beresford combated the objections of the laſt Speaker, after which both bills were brought in and read a firſt time. The Houſe then reſolved into a committee on the expiring laws.

3. Mr Hobhouſe brought up the report of the committee of the whole Houſe, which ſat laſt night on a report of the Committee on expiring laws. The reſolutions declaring the acts ſpecified in the report to be near expiring, and that they ought to be continued, were agreed to, and bills were ordered to be introduced accordingly.

Mr Secretary Yorke brought up a copy of a proclamation iſſued by the Lord Lieutenant and Council of Ireland, prohibiting diſtillation from oats and oatmeal.—Laid on the table.

Mr Corry gave notice, that on Monday he ſhould move for leave to bring in a bill of indemnity, founded on the proclamation, and that he ſhould propoſe a clauſe, authoriſing the Lord Lieutenant and Council to continue the prohibition againſt diſtillation from theſe materials for a time to be limited.

Mr Hobhouſe brought up the report of the Committee on affording relief to poor curates who may be deprived of their tythings by the clergy reſidence act of laſt ſeſſion. The reſolution was agreed to, and a bill ordered.

Mr Hobhouſe brought up the report of the Committee of Ways and Means. The reſolutions were agreed to, and bills were ordered. He alſo brought up the report of the Committee of Supply, granting certain ſums for the Ordinary of the navy for 1804, which was alſo agreed to.

Mr Addington gave notice, that on Monday he ſhould move for the reappointment of the committee of laſt ſeſſion, to inveſtigate the joint account betwen England and Ireland.

Mr Vanſittart brought up a bill indemnifying certain perſons who had omitted to qualify themſelves for certain offices, which was read a firſt, and ordered to be read a ſecond time on Monday.

Mr Corry gave notice, that when the bill came before the Committee, he ſhould move the introduction of ſimilar proviſions for Ireland.

Mr Corry brought up the Iriſh Bank Reſtriction Bill, which was read a firſt, and ordered for a ſecond reading on Monday.

The Engliſh Bank Reſtriction Bill went through the Committee. The blank was filled up with the words. 'Six months after the ratification of Preliminaries of Peace.'

5. Mr Manning brought in a bill for raiſing a further ſum for carrying on the London docks.

Mr Corry roſe to make his motion upon the proclamation of the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, relative to the prohibition of the diſtillation of ſpirits from oats or oatmeal in Ireland. The Lord Lieutenant, in adopting that ſtep, had conſulted the beſt intereſts of the middling and lower orders of the people in Ireland, whoſe principal ſupport aroſe from oats. It was beſides a fact, that the crop as to oats had failed in three provinces out of four, during the laſt ſeaſon. He therefore moved, that he might have leave to bring in a bill prohibiting ſuch diſtillation, and granting an indemnity to the Lord Lieutenant for the prohibition made by him.

Mr Francis highly approved of the meaſure, and thought that there was nothing ſo miſchievous to the morals of the lower orders of the people, as the too liberal diſtillation of that pernicious drug whiſkey.

Leave was given to bring in the bill.

The Eaſt India Bonds Bill was read a ſecond time, and committed for to-morrow.

The bill for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus in Ireland was read a ſecond time, and committed for to-morrow.

The bill for continuing martial law in Ireland was read a ſecond time. On the motion that it be committed,

Mr Wm Elliot roſe and ſtated, that having deprived Ireland of a Legiſlature,

it became doubly our bounden duty to ſee that we legiſlated for her in ſuch a manner as might be beneficial and conſiſtent with a regard to her intereſts, and to the ſtate of the country. A meaſure of ſuch importance as the preſent to be enacted, without any evidence of its neceſſity, was one not to be haſtily gone into. When this meaſure was firſt adopted there were two reports of ſecret committees of the Iriſh Parliament lying on the table, and although no actual inſurrection exiſted, the Lord Lieutenant declared that ſuch was dreaded. Now, however, they were proceeding to ſuch a meaſure entirely in the dark; no evidence of the ſtate of Ireland was laid before the Houſe. He had voted for this meaſure laſt ſeſſion, in conſequence of the meſſage then ſubmitted to the Houſe, expecting that every information would be afforded; now, however, they were called upon for a renewal of that ſtep, while at the ſame time hopes were held out that the inſurrection was entirely quelled, and that it had been contemptible and limited in its nature, in compariſon of what was originally dreaded.

Mr Secretary Yorke replied to the obſervations of Mr Elliot, and maintained that the Houſe had always paid proper attention to the affairs of Ireland, and inſiſted that there was ſufficient evidence before the Houſe to continue the meaſure which had laſt ſeſſion been adopted, for the ſafety of that country. He contended alſo that the preparations for ſuppreſſing any inſurrection that might have taken place were amply ſufficient.

Colonel Crawford apprehended that it had been confeſſed by the Secretary of State, that the inſurrection had been contemptible, and he could by no means think that a proper reaſon for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus and enacting Martial Law. He could not conceive that the evidence laid before the Houſe was ſufficient; but viewing the ſtate of Ireland as he did, he muſt ſupport the bill.

Mr Francis thought that if miniſters had information to warrant this meaſure, they had with-held it from that Houſe.

Lord Caſtlereagh ſaid, that gentlemen were not warranted in attributing any thing improper to the Government with regard to Ireland, without condeſcending on the particular inſtance to which they allude. He wiſhed their conduct to be looked into, and ſhould be ready to vindicate it.

The conduct of the Iriſh Government was attacked by Colonel Crawford and Mr Windham, and vindicated by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr Poole, and Mr Wilberforce. The debate went entirely to eſtabliſh that the neceſſary precautions had been omitted on the night of the inſurrection in Dublin, and *vice verſa*. The bill was read a ſecond time, and committed.

Sir P. Stephens moved that 709,247l. be granted his Majeſty, for the hire of tranſports for the year 1804. Agreed to. That 220,160l. be granted his Majeſty for the ſubſiſting priſoners of war in health, for the year 1804. Agreed to. That 420,810l. be granted his Majeſty for the priſoners of war that may be ſick, for the year 1804. Agreed to.

Mr Corry moved for leave to bring in a bill to ſuſpend, for a time to be limited, the operation of the act of laſt ſeſſion prohibiting the circulation of ſmall notes in Ireland, after January 1804. Granted. Bill read a firſt time.

Mr Vanſittart brought up a bill to continue the reſtriction on the Bank of England from paying in ſpecie.

Sir W. Elford obſerved, that there was a material alteration in this bill. Former bills had continued the reſtriction till ſix weeks after the next ſeſſion, whereas this ſpecified ſix months after the concluſion of the definitive treaty of peace.

Mr Addington approved of the variation being noticed. In fact, while the reſtriction was continued in peace, ſix weeks after the next ſeſſion was time enough, and ſix weeks was the time at firſt mentioned after the concluſion of peace; but it was thought too ſhort a period, as Parliament might not at the concluſion be ſitting. The bill was read a firſt time. Adjourned.

6. Mr Corry moved the ſecond reading of the Iriſh Bank reſtriction bill, which was done.

Lord Archibald Hamilton roſe to give notice of his intention to move in the committee, a clauſe for reſtricting the iſſues of notes by the Bank of Ireland, and to render the Directors reſponſible for paper currency, which he conſidered to be carried to a very dangerous extent.

Mr

Mr Corry, in the abſence of ſo many Iriſh members, hoped that the ſubject would not be agitated. He agreed with the noble lord, that ſome regulation was eſſential, and it was his intention, at an early period after the receſs, to afford the Houſe an opportunity of giving the ſubject ſerious and impartial conſideration. With this view, he he ſhould move, that the Committee on this bill be deferred till the 13th of February. This motion was accordingly put, and agreed to.

The Iriſh Habeas Corpus Suſpenſion Bill, and the Iriſh Martial Law Bill, ſeverally paſſed through a committee without giving riſe to any diſcuſſion. The report of both bills was ordered to be received to-morrow.

Colonel Francis William Grant, who in conſequence of non-attendance on the Waterford Committee, was ordered to be in his place to-morrow, attended this day. The Hon. Member read a ſhort and very handſome apology. His non-attendance aroſe wholly from ignorance of the forms of the Houſe. He had acted on the advice of a friend, who informed him that all Committees were diſſolved at the end of a ſeſſion. As ſoon as he received the order of the Houſe he had ſet off for London. Being engaged with his regiment in the diſcharge of his profeſſional duties, he truſted that he would experience the indulgence of the Houſe. After this handſome explanation, the order for to-morrow was read, and on the motion of Mr Plomer, immediately diſcharged.

Colonel Grant returned his ſincere thanks for their indulgence, and here the matter ended.

The Secretary at War ſtated, that he had it in command from his Majeſty to inform the Houſe, that he had iſſued orders for putting Major-General Napper Chriſtie Burton under arreſt, to take his trial before a Court Martial, for a breach of military diſcipline.

An addreſs of thanks was voted for his Majeſty's attention to the privileges of the Houſe.

Lord Caſtlereagh moved the committal of the Eaſt India bonds bill, which after a ſhort converſation was agreed to.

An amendment to the Iriſh martial law bill, propoſed by Mr Wilberforce, was, after a ſhort converſation, negatived.

8. Ordered, that it be an inſtruction to the Committee on the Portugal wine bonding bill, to extend the benefits of the bill to a certain quantity of Spaniſh wines. A petition from the Sierra Leona Company, praying that a ſum not exceeding 10,000 l. be granted for defraying the civil expences of the colony for the year 1802, was referred to a ſelect Committee. The Iriſh habeas corpus and martial law bills were paſſed.

POLITICAL RETROSPECT

OF THE YEAR ONE THOUSAND EIGHT HUNDRED AND THREE.

IT has been our endeavour, in the hiſtorical branch of this Magazine, to exhibit a faithful detail of public events and occurrences; to diſtinguiſh from truth, thoſe inaccuracies which are inſeparable from the more haſty promulgation of news; and to reject exaggerations which are daily fabricated, either to gratify an immoderate appetite for novelty, or to forward the views of particular intereſts and parties.

Although our diligence has kept pace with the increaſing importance of this duty, we are now enabled to offer a curſory review of the tranſactions of the paſt twelve months, without treſpaſſing much upon our readers with unneceſſary repetition. At a period when remarkable events may be traced to their original cauſes with greater accuracy and preciſion, when the materials are more ample for the conſtruction of a narrative, with data from which the reſults of a combination of

aſtoniſhing circumſtances, may be more correctly appreciated, a comprehenſive, though neceſſarily conciſe ſketch, may form perhaps an uſeful ſupplement to our monthly reports.

The definitive treaty which early in the preceding year had been concluded between Great Britain and France, gave univerſal joy, and was received as the pledge of a juſt and laſting peace to the harraſſed nations of Europe. For objects which were on the one part dubious, or altogether indefinite, and on the other repugnant to juſtice and acknowledged laws, the world had been ravaged during a ten years war, more ſanguinary in its progreſs, and more calamitous in its conſequences, than any recorded in the page of modern hiſtory. The naval ſuperiority of Great Britain had been eſtabliſhed beyond diſpute, by a ſeries of aſtoniſhing victories; her territories were entire, and ſafe from any attack; her finances, trade, and colonies, were flouriſhing beyond example, yet no rational proſpect exiſted of advantage from the war, and peace was loudly welcomed by all the moderate, generous, and humane of the nation. Notwithſtanding the immenſe extent of territory and influence which France had gained by the war, its continuance appeared ſtill leſs deſireable on her part. Smarting under the wounds which the revolution had inflicted, peace only could alleviate the miſeries of the interior, revive her cripplied marine, and raiſe her trade and manufactures from deſolation and ruin. Thus ſituated, the two leading belligerent powers retired from the conteſt, each laying claim to victory and glory, and ſeverally aggrandiſed at the expenſe of the weaker ſtates who had fallen in the ſtruggle. Had peace been concluded on both ſides, with equal ſincerity and uprightneſs of intention, the two nations might have enjoyed a long friendſhip, and profitable intercourſe; but the flame of diſcord was ſmothered, not extinguiſhed, and was ſoon to deſolate the earth with redoubled fury and effect.

The ſtipulations of the treaty, it falls not within our province to review. They were, with the ſingle exception of Malta, carried into effect, with that good faith, which is the honourable characteriſtic of this nation. The teſtimonies of ſincerity on our part, were numerous and unequivocal; the reduction of our forces, the reſtoration of our conqueſts, the character of the miniſtry, the ſtate of parties in Parliament, and the diſpoſition of the people, gave united aſſurance, that the recent peace ſhould not be wantonly violated by Great Britain.

The very reverſe of this picture was the conduct of the oppoſite party.—France had no conqueſts to reſtore, becauſe ſhe was not, at the concluſion of the war, in poſſeſſion of one inch of Britiſh territory; and neither, in her internal arrangements, nor external relations, did ſhe embrace one opportunity of manifeſting a pacific and amicable diſpoſition. Thoſe ſchemes of revolution and conqueſt which, in times of the republican anarchy, had called forth the reſiſtance of all Europe, were now carried into effect without oppoſition. The ſmaller ſtates within the Conſul's reach, were rapidly annexed to his dominions, or ſubjected to the immediate controul of the French, and the firſt and chief uſe of theſe acquiſitions, was avowedly to ſtrike at the proſperity of Britain, by the excluſion of her trade from its ordinary channels. Britiſh commerce and manufactures were totally prohibited in France and in its dependencies, and redreſs was obſtinately refuſed to every complaint and demand from Britiſh ſubjects. The ſtipulated independence of Malta was ſubverted by a manœuvre, which, without altering the form of its government, rendered the ſovereignty of that iſland wholly dependent upon Bonaparte.—Theſe hoſtile operations were watched by the Britiſh Government with unceaſing ſolicitude and anxiety; every exertion was made by remonſtrance and negociation, to obtain the adoption of a ſyſtem more conſonant with general tranquillity, and diſcuſſions advanced rapidly to that point, when no alternative was left between implicit ſubmiſſion and determined reſiſtance. The evacuation of Malta was therefore ſuſpended until the government of that important fortreſs ſhould be eſtabliſhed and fully guaranteed, agreeably to the ſpirit of the treaty of Amiens; and upon the other points in debate, an immediate and categorical anſwer was required from Bonaparte. The preparations, however, which the

Chief

Chief Conſul intended to direct againſt this country, were not then ſufficiently advanced, to authoriſe an immediate avowal of his ſchemes; evaſion and delay were better calculated to promote his ends, but theſe advantages were ſoon loſt to him, by that temerity and violence, of which, in many inſtances, he has had full occaſion to repent. In the ſuddenneſs and height of his elevation, this extraordinary character had loſt ſight of thoſe maxims which would probably, in the ſame circumſtances, have directed a more wary and experienced ſtateſman. He had grievouſly miſtaken the policy and character of Britain and its government; and his deſigns, which were formed upon moſt erroneous calculations, began to be developed before they were nearly ripe for execution. The famous report of Sebaſtiani * unveiled his intention of ſeizing, at no very diſtant period, upon our rich poſſeſſions in India, while a declaration that 500,000 men were ready to attack Great Britain, and the far founded boaſt that "England alone could not now encounter France," diſplayed his views and proſpects of conquering the Empire in its ſtrongeſt parts. † By one unguarded expreſſion, he confirmed the import of a former; one precipitate meaſure followed another, until the Britiſh Miniſtry put an end to an ineffectual negociation, and to a ſeries of inſults, by his Majeſty's meſſage to Parliament, of March the 8th.‡

For ſome time previous to this event, large ſupplies and eſtabliſhments had been demanded by Government, and granted by Parliament, although theſe could not fail, in a period of peace, to awaken the jealouſy, and draw forth the animadverſions of oppoſition. The national force, which had been greatly diminiſhed upon the concluſion of peace, was reſtored to conſiderable ſtrength and reſpectability, but was by no means adequate to cope with the enemy, even on the ſcale of a purely defenſive war. On the Continent, proſtrate at the foot of the enemy, no alliance to afford us a favourable diverſion, was practicable; while the ſound of preparation echoed from his ſhores, and his troops were collecting in thouſands, for the invaſion of the Britiſh dominions. In this hour of danger, the efficacy of the ſyſtem of Government, which diſtinguiſhes this favoured land, became eminently conſpicuous. The nation was appealed to, its danger fairly ſtated, and the remedy pointed out; the miſery of the people already ſubjected to France, was contraſted with Britiſh proſperity and freedom, alternatives to which we were reduced by the encroachments of an ambitious and inveterate enemy. The queſtion admitted of no deliberation; the deciſion was ſudden and imperative. Animated throughout with one ſoul, and breathing one ſpirit, every Briton burned with the love of his country, and with the reſolution to live free, or periſh in her ruins.—While the regular force was augmenting by incredible ſacrifices and exertions, 500,000 citizens appeared in battle array, with a voluntary offer of their blood and ſervices. The ſpirit of the country far outſtripped the exigencies of her ſituation, and Government now found an unexpected embarraſſment in the equipment and organization of a military force, large and formidable, beyond all precedent in our hiſtory.

His Majeſty's declaration was accompanied by ample communications to Parliament.* In theſe official documents, the origin, progreſs, and termination of the late diſcuſſions with France, were fully exhibited to the country. In the concluſions to be drawn from them, no diverſity of ſentiment could poſſibly occur. Our national honour, independence, and even exiſtence, were plainly involved in the iſſue of the conteſt; the ſincerity and good faith, with which Miniſters had endeavoured to ſecure the continuance of peace, were no leſs conſpicuous, than their ability and vigilance in protecting the intereſts of the nation. The unprincipled ambition and rapacity of the enemy, were unfolded: the malice and tyranny which were developed in his deſigns againſt the emigrants, and

* Scots Magazine, v. 65. p. 134.
† Scots Magazine, v. 65. p. 208.
‡ Scots Mag. v. 65. ps. 278. & 340.

* See his Majeſty's declaration, Scots Magazine, v. 65. p. 348, and State Papers, p. 415.

in his audacious propoſitions for deſtroying the freedom of the preſs, excited in every mind the ſtrongeſt ſenſations of diſguſt and deteſtation. The real character of Bonaparte had hitherto been imperfectly underſtood, but now an hollow ſhew of juſtice and moderation had loſt its charm; the dazzling luſtre of fortune could no longer ſave his character from inquiſitive obſervation, and the hero was univerſally regarded, as a deteſtable and dangerous diſturber of ſociety.

Although all political parties, upon this preſſing emergency, reſorted to a cordial union in the general cauſe, much variety of ſentiment has occurred reſpecting the mode in which the energies of the country could be moſt effectually combined and directed.—Statеſmen of high name and authority have ridiculed and condemned the volunteer ſyſtem, as totally inefficient to the ends propoſed, as an irregular and uſeleſs rabble, who might otherwiſe have ſwelled the ranks of a diſciplined and powerful army, as a dangerous armed democracy, and as an inſtitution highly derogatory to the eſtimation in which military ſervice is, and ought juſtly to be held. Miniſtry, however, with the ſupport of much the greater portion of talent and rank in our national councils, and of the almoſt unanimous voice of the country, have ſuperintended, with paternal care, this moſt important branch of our military arrangements. By the friends to the ſyſtem, it has been warmly defended from the bitter aſperſions of its opponents. Its efficiency has been vindicated and eſtabliſhed, not only as an invaluable ally to the regular army, but as the means of immediately increaſing its numbers by the encouragement of of a martial ardour throughout the land. The volunteer army, aſſembled from a ſpontaneous and generous impulſe, is, it is ſaid, more to be relied upon in the field, than the levies of compulſion and coercion, however ſuperior in diſcipline; nor do theſe corps appear leſs patient and perſevering in the acquiſition of military ſkill, than they were zealous and ardent in tendering their ſervices to the country. The participation of almoſt all men of rank, whether from talents or opulence, was, it was contended, a ſecurity againſt unconſtitutional deſigns originating with any of the corps, while the beſt hopes were held out to the country from the loyalty, zeal, and intelligence, which had already been fully conſpicuous in this army.

Viewing this inſtitution as the mark of a new æra in the hiſtory of Great Britain, we have rather digreſſed in adverting to its origin; but for the ſentiments on this meaſure, to which we have briefly alluded, the reader is referred to our reports of the proceedings in Parliament, the conſtitutional mirror of public opinion. While this great plan has been gradually approaching to maturity and perfection, a more regular force has been equipped and employed with incredible ſpeed. The militia have been placed upon a formidable eſtabliſhment, and from a large body raiſed by ballot under the denomination of an army of reſerve, vaſt additions have been made to the troops of the line. The coaſt has been rendered almoſt impregnable by an immenſe number of gun-boats, block-ſhips, &c. ſtationed at every aſſailable point, while the Britiſh fleet carries menace and terror to the enemy in every part of the world. Much as the country has to boaſt on this ſubject, their ſignal ſervices in the preſent war muſt ſtand high among the glorious exertions of our ſeamen. The enemy, who threatened our ſhores with a powerful deſcent, was quickly ſhut up in all the ports of his long extended coaſt, and the blockade has been continued with unprecedented perſeverance and vigilance: his flotillas have been inceſſantly annoyed, and Britiſh thunder has brought terror and deſtruction upon his towns. The diſperſed ſhips and trade of France have been almoſt wholly captured, and her colonies, with a promptitude and bravery highly creditable to our arms, have been wreſted from her power.

Neither ſo decided a naval ſuperiority, nor the formidable attitude of the country, have been ſufficient to deter the foe from a vigorous proſecution of his ſchemes. He may, however, deem it prudent to enlarge the force upon which he originally calculated to effect an invaſion; which, with the hoſtile appearance of our ſhips, has probably induced him to defer the attempt for a ſeaſon.

Bonaparte has ranſacked the world in

in queſt of injury to this country, and whether we conſider the extent of his preparations, the violence of his temper, or the views of his immeaſurable ambition, a deſperate effort may be ultimately expected, for the utter extinction of his rival as a ſtate. Thwarted in his deſign of attacking theſe realms by ſurpriſe, his firſt offenſive operations were directed againſt the perſons of our credulous and defenceleſs countrymen, whom buſineſs or pleaſure had induced to viſit France in time of peace. Theſe were, to a great number, ſeized upon at the breaking out of the rupture, and have been made priſoners of war, without diſtinction of rank or profeſſion. So outrageous a violation of the principles of juſtice and the laws of nations, might in ſome meaſure have been juſtified, had military perſons alone been made its objects. But when the feeble invalid and the indigent mechanic were indiſcriminately conſigned to impriſonment, miſery, and want, to appeaſe the wrath and gratify the malice of a diſappointed tyrant, one ſentiment of horror and indignation pervaded the civilized world. This was followed by a ſtep of not leſs atrocious injuſtice, in the invaſion and plunder of the innocent Hanoverians: Early in June, a French army of 40,000 men entered that electorate, and diſarmed its troops without a ſtruggle. The conduct of the enemy in this inſtance has been correſpondent to the injuſtice of his cauſe; and Hanover has been oppreſſed and pillaged with a ſeverity perhaps without parallel in caſes of the moſt aggravated provocation. The Germanic Empire, weakened and diſpirited from the reverſes of the late war, made no reſiſtance to this outrage on its neutrality: and the French flag, planted on the banks of the Elbe, announced the neighbourhood of the determined enemy of Britain. Government retaliated with great promptitude and effect, by an immediate blockade of that river, and meaſures, from which it is to be regretted that the intereſts of Hamburgh and other neutral ſtates, were neceſſarily injured.

When the independence and tranquillity of Germany were thus ſhamefully attacked, all eyes turned towards the great northern powers, whoſe ſecurity and commercial intereſts were conſidered to be endangered by the unprincipled conduct of the French.—Pruſſia, however, favouring, if not in an intereſted confederacy with France, permits neither a due regard to her own dignity, nor a prudent jealouſy of overgrown and increaſing power to influence her politics. Ruſſia alone, in co-operation with this country, can preſent an effectual barrier to the encroachments of Bonaparte upon the continent, an event which, if we may be permitted a conjecture, is not very remote. With leſs violence than in the north of Europe, yet not with leſs injuſtice, have the feeble ſtates of Spain and Portugal been made ſubſidiary to the elevation of France. Pecuniary demands, to a conſiderable amount, have already been complied with by theſe powers; and it appears that this country will ſoon be forced to conſider them as enemies, a character in which Portugal, always faithful to her connection with Great Britain, cannot be obſerved but with regret. Holland and Italy, chained to the fortune of their conqueror, have been made principals in a conteſt in which they have no natural intereſt. The Dutch, ſince the commencement of the war, have materially aſſiſted in preparing and furniſhing the means of invaſion, but the exertions which have been required from them, at the point of the bayonet, have involved the country in the moſt intolerable miſery and diſtreſs. A large and well appointed French army has been maintained in Holland ſince the commencement of the war, ſuppoſed to be deſtined againſt this country, although perhaps it may have ſufficient employment to keep in ſubjection the diſcontented inhabitants. Switzerland we have ſeen overrun and revolutionized, to prevent it from forming an alliance with Great Britain; and in ſhort the controul of Bonaparte extended or his influence introduced in every quarter, where enemies or obſtacles could be raiſed to the power and proſperity of this country.

While acting upon this general ſyſtem of diſorganization and ſubjection abroad, Bonaparte has been indefatigable at home in concentering the great reſources of his own dominions for an effectual irruption into Britain. The ſeaſon is, however, rapidly paſſing away in which the armaments of the French can venture to put to ſea, without

out expoſure to inevitable deſtruction from the triumphant ſquadrons of their enemies. Hence it is ſuppoſed that the project is for the preſent abandoned, or that it never has been ſeriouſly intended, and that a *ruſe de guerre*, calculated to divert attention from his real and more practicable ſchemes of aggrandizement, is the ultimate object of Bonaparte's threatened expedition. Theſe conjectures, although ſtrengthened by the analogy of former caſes, certainly will not be permitted to weaken that ſpirit of exertion and patriotic zeal which is the ſafeguard of theſe realms. The delay of the enemy has no doubt evinced the inadequacy of his means, and the fallacy of his calculations, but it is not an evidence of indeciſion, nor a ſecurity againſt his ſtealing upon us, ſhould we credulouſly relax in thoſe vigorous meaſures, which have already ſet the invaſion at defiance.

With this ſlight outline of the features of the war, we ſhall pauſe, and revert to the commencement of the year for ſuch domeſtic occurrences as have principally engaged the attention of the public. Previous to the period in view, party diſcuſſion in this country had almoſt ceaſed, and the diſſenſions which lately agitated all minds and threatened an hoſtile exploſion, had been completely removed by the pacific and conciliating meaſures of a new miniſtry. In the enjoyment of an union, ſpringing from general happineſs, proſperity and contentment, the nation was arouſed by the detection of a conſpiracy, deſpicable in its means, but ſanguinary and atrocious in its purpoſes; aiming at the life of our ſovereign, and at the overthrow of all thoſe ſacred inſtitutions which conſtitute the glory and pre-eminence of Britons. Its authors expiated their crimes upon the ſcaffold; the plot was regarded with general abhorrence and deteſtation, and all ranks approached the throne with ſentiments of the moſt fervent loyalty and patriotiſm. The domeſtic foe, ſubdued by the tardy but unerring hand of juſtice, was ſucceeded by a conteſt of an higher character; and the energies of Engliſhmen were once more ſummoned into conflict with their ancient, powerful, and vindictive enemy. A reſolution worthy of the moſt heroic ages, inſpired and conducted the nation to that attitude of ſtrength, ſo worthy of the character and eſſential to the ſafety of this great and envied empire. The enemy, however, placed more reliance upon his tried weapons of deluſion and corruption, than upon a manly and generous competition. The poiſon of his deſtructive principles was artfully infuſed into the minds of the ignorant and diſcontented in the ſiſter kingdom, and a rebellion was attempted, with its French concomitants, murder and pillage. * This inſurrection, although ſpeedily quelled, was attended by circumſtances of peculiar atrocity, yet the loyalty of the maſs of the Iriſh remained untarniſhed, and tranquillity was reſtored upon a more durable baſis than before. The mild and beneficent ſpirit of Britiſh juriſprudence was here peculiarly happy in its effects. The ſafety of the country required an example, and the ringleaders were brought to juſtice after a patient inveſtigation, and unqueſtionable evidence of their guilt; while the deluded and leſs active agents of rebellion have been very generally reclaimed to a ſenſe of duty, from a practical conviction of the excellencies of that ſyſtem which they had vainly tried to overthrow. The tranquillity of Ireland may now be conſidered completely reeſtabliſhed and ſecured, while the vigilance of Government, and determined loyalty of the inhabitants, have rendered it impregnable to every attack from an invader.

Thus we have every ground of hope, that under the guidance of the Supreme Being, Great Britain will ride the ſtorm, and finally triumph over all the efforts of her adverſaries. Supported in a juſt cauſe by the hands and beſt affections of her brave and hardy ſons, the immenſe exertions of the tyrant muſt recoil upon himſelf; he is but adding to the weight of that awful reſponſibility under which he muſt one day account for the bloodſhed, confuſion, and diſtreſs in which his violent and ungovernable paſſions have plunged a large portion of the human race. From his dreams of the ſubmiſſion of this country he has already awakened to diſap-

* For an account of this rebellion, ſee Scots Mag. v. 65. p. 571. &c.

pointment and remorſe; freedom and proſperity muſt be driven from their laſt aſylum, or the ſun of his ambition muſt for ever ſet in the dark night of humiliation, ignominy, and ruin.—With far different ſenſations is the glorious career of this country viewed, by his enſlaved and miſerable vaſſals, to whom the report of our victories carries the hope of emancipation, raiſing them from the gloom of deſpondency and terror, to the gladdening proſpect of the deſtruction of their oppreſſor.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

FRANCE.

The French armaments, although underſtood to have been for ſome time time paſt in a ſtate of completion, are ſtill cautiouſly kept within the protection of their own ſhores. Upon the late journey of the Firſt Conſul, it was confidently believed that ſome attempt would be made; and from the advanced ſtate of his preparations, with the advantages which the ſeaſon and the weather at preſent offer, the delay of the enemy has given riſe to various and contradictory opinions.

Bonaparte was abſent from Paris, upon the whole, near three weeks. The troops and flotillas manœuvred in his preſence, and at theſe exhibitions, his perſonal activity was highly extolled, but his viſit ſeems to have been confined to Boulogne and the neighbourhood. His return to Paris was announced by an unuſual diſcharge of artillery, which he ſeems to have merited as much as the French King, who

" With fifty thouſand men,
March'd up the hill, and then—march'd down again."

Although from the apparent heſitation of the enemy, we may ſafely augur, that his means are not perfectly adequate to his purpoſes, it would be going too far to infer that he has either abandoned the enterprize or relaxed in his animoſity. It is certain that Bonaparte returned from his journey, much ſooner than was expected, which by ſome has been attributed to an appearance of diſſaffection among his general officers, and by others to the late political occurences in the North. He was however expected to proceed again in a few days to the coaſt, where preparations for war were continued with unabated activity. The flotilla on the coaſt has increaſed ſo rapidly, that the harbour of Boulogne is no longer ſufficient for the reception of the detachments ſent there.

All the letters from Boulogne and Dunkirk coincide in ſtating, that for the laſt fortnight, warlike preparations of every deſcription have been carried on with encreaſed vigour. All the officers of the navy have been ordered to their ſtations on board the different ſhips.

The troops of the garriſon of St Maloes were reviewed on the 2d, and were, it is ſaid, to be embarked in a few days, on board the flotilla at that port. There appears indeed to have been about that time a general movement in all the French ports from the Texel to Breſt. It is ſtated in the Bruſſels Papers, that the fleet in Holland is immediately to ſet ſail under the convoy of a ſquadron, commanded by Admiral De Winter. This forms the right wing of the " Expeditionary" Army. The centre is at Oſtend and Boulogne, and the left wing at Breſt. The firſt is deſtined for Scotland, the ſecond for England, and the third for Ireland, all of which it is added will make a a ſimultaneous movement.

The beſt informed friends to this country, who find ſometimes an opportunity of communicating their actual obſervations upon the enemy's armaments, deprecate the idea of his deſign having ever been even for a moment abandoned. But to the honourable attitude, which Great Britain has aſſumed, and to the lowering aſpect of

of the politics of the north, the Firſt Conſul has been indebted for much and unexpected embarraſſment. From the inſpection of ſeveral of his favourite gun boats, which have been brought in by our cruiſers, a moſt deſpicable idea is entertained of them, as inſtruments of invaſion; and this gains ground from the paltry reſiſtance which ſquadrons of theſe veſſels have frequently offered, to the ſmalleſt and weakeſt among our armed ſhips. That this character will apply to the whole, or to any conſiderable portion of the armament, we do not feel at all inclined to believe; there exiſts however a more ſerious obſtacle to the invaſion, and one for which the Firſt Conſul will not ſo eaſily find a remedy, in the growing diſaffection of the army. The veteran troops who have been buoyed up by lofty promiſes, and ſanguine expectations from the expedition to Britain, begin now to murmur at the appearance of delay or indeciſion on the part of their chief, while the raw conſcripts, who, torn from the boſom of their country have been conducted in chains and like criminals to the coaſt, deſert to a formidable amount. The general officers, and military characters of experience diſapprove of the enterprize, and ſeveral of theſe have explicitly refuſed to ſhare in its fate; ſo that the power of Bonaparte ſhakes upon its own pillars, and probably all his energy muſt for a ſeaſon be exerted, in the ſtructure of a timely and efficacious prop. The diſcontent is greateſt among the troops in Holland, who it has been confidently ſtated have, to the number of 60,000 laid down their arms and refuſed to embark. But although this is manifeſt exaggeration, it is certain from the uncommon frequency of military executions, that the army in that quarter is by no means well affected to the cauſe, and that it is governed for the preſent by terror and coercion. It appears by accounts from the ſouth of Europe, that the Firſt Conſul meditates ſome movements from that quarter.—Numbers of French troops have been marched from the kingdom of Etruria for the coaſt of the Adriatic; but their ultimate deſtination is a ſecret. Strong apprehenſions are entertained that they may be intended to take poſſeſſion of the Morea. The Toulon fleet is completely ready for ſea: a great number of troops are embarked on board it, and it only waits for permiſſion from Lord Nelſon to ſail.

GERMANY.

Differences which threaten with new convulſions the German empire, have ariſen between Auſtria and Bavaria concerning Oberhaus, a large fortified village, claimed alike by both States, as appertaining to their reſpective indemnities. By the repreſentations of the Ruſſian Miniſter at Munich, the Elector was forced to renounce, for the preſent, his pretenſions. It is, however, believed every where in Germany, that neither France nor Pruſſia will ſuffer, without reſentment, the threats of Auſtria, and the ſubmiſſion of Bavaria, particularly as the latter has acted in conſequence of the determinations of the Courts of St Cloud and Berlin.

Other ſparks of diſcord lurk in the Germanic body, from which theſe powers are eager to ſpread the flames of war. The Emperor is reſolute in his determination to undo the inequality which has lately been introduced into the College of Princes, between the Catholic and Proteſtant intereſts. The Proteſtants now have 51 votes, while the Catholics have only 39; his Imperial Majeſty therefore propoſes to introduce ſuch a number of new Catholic Princes as may bring the votes of that intereſt to at leaſt an equality with the Proteſtants. This meaſure is ſtrongly oppoſed by the majority of the Princes, but by none more than the Elector of Bavaria, who though a Catholic Prince, ſtrongly inſiſts for maintaining the aſcendancy of the Proteſtant intereſt. The real grounds of this conteſt (in which religion is introduced, as ſhe often has been, for a veil to proceedings in which ſhe has no part) are by no means doubtful. The majority of the Princes are at preſent in the French intereſt, and the Emperor is determined to introduce a counterbalance to them of thoſe attached to himſelf. Bavaria is to be regarded as merely the repreſentative of France in this affair. She has not even the ſcreen of religion to interpoſe between her views and the public eye.

In the mean time, a courier has been ſent off to Munich; the Bavarian Envoy is ſtill at Vienna, and the Auſtrian

trian Envoy is not yet recalled from Munich.

The accounts from Hanover are ſtill full of the oppreſſions of the French, and of the miſeries of the inhabitants. Yet a Congreſs to arrange the affairs of the Electorate is ſtill talked of; and, it is ſaid, that it will be held at Schwerin.

General Schinner, the French Commander at Hanover, has called upon the Citizens to deliver a liſt of all ſtrangers, their names and profeſſions, whence they came, and whither they are going. Severe penalties attend the breach of theſe regulations.

At length the Chief Conſul, having exhauſted the ſpoils of Hanover, has reſolved to ſqueeze the Hans Towns. Gen. Berthier has accordingly been inſtructed to demand a large ſum by way of loan, or rather free gift, of the ſenate of Hamburgh, who were at the ſame time given to underſtand, that, ſhould they prove refractory, General Mortier would viſit them at the head of 30,000 men, to bring them to reaſon. Similar demands have been made upon Lubeck and Bremen, and, in the caſe of the former at leaſt, have been complied with. The amount of the loan is variouſly reported; ſome accounts make it 60,000l. for Hamburgh, 50,000l. for Bremen, and 40,000l. for Lubeck. Other accounts repreſent it to be much larger.

DENMARK.

It has been for ſome time reported, that the French had it in comtemplation to attempt ſhutting up the Sound, and we now learn that moſt ſerious apprehenſions are entertained at Copenhagen of a viſit from the French in the courſe of the winter; that every preparation is making to oppoſe them, and that the Crown Prince has declared, that, 'if they do invade Denmark, it ſhall be over the dead bodies of himſelf and his countrymen.'

SPAIN.

All the accounts from this quarter ſpeak of the hoſtile demonſtrations of the Spaniards. It is ſtated in a private letter, that 'ſome time ago our Miniſter at Madrid made a very ſtrong remonſtrance againſt the partial protection afforded by Spain to the French privateers, but without obtaining any ſatisfactory reply, or the leaſt proſpect being afforded that the French intereſt in that quarter would not continue as predominant as it had been for ſome time paſt.'

A Spaniſh fleet of ſix ſail of the line and nine frigates, under the command of Admiral Gravina, is on the eve of ſailing from Cadiz, it is ſaid, for the Havannah. The militia of Spain has been for ſome time embodied, and much attention is directed to complete regiments of the line to their full eſtabliſhment.

The accounts from Malaga are very melancholy, upwards of one hundred die daily of the yellow fever, which has ſpread to every quarter of the city.

The Faculty there report, that out of every hundred who are attacked with the diſeaſe, ſixty-two recover, and thirty-eight die on an average. Subſequent advices of the date of Nov. 12, ſtate, that the malady there had become ſomewhat leſs violent, and the phyſicians had hopes that the cold weather would put an end to the diſtemper. The country in the vicinity of the city was free from infection.

TURKEY.

Letters from Conſtantinople ſtate, that the Beys of Egypt have promiſed to hold that country for the Porte, which they will acknowledge as the lawful ſovereign, on the ſame terms as before the invaſion of the French, and that they will admit Britiſh garriſons in the principal ſtrong places. The Porte is ſaid to have favourably received theſe overtures, being not only afraid of another French invaſion of that country, but alſo of the Morea. On this account orders have been iſſued to recruit an army of 200,000 men, one half of which is to ſecure the provinces of the Turkiſh parts of Hungary from the rapacity of the rebellious Pachas, and the other is to protect the Turkiſh poſſeſſions in Greece, &c.

The Engliſh and French Ambaſſadors have both frequent conferences at preſent with the Reis Effendi; but the Porte remains immoveably fixed in its determination to obſerve the moſt rigid neutrality.

AMERICA.

A copy of the Preſident's ſpeech at the opening of Congreſs, has been received by the laſt mail. The ſale and ceſſion of Louiſiana to the United

States, forms, as was to be expected, the moſt prominent feature of the ſpeech. The Preſident congratulates the Congreſs, in very warm terms, upon the acquiſition of ſo valuable a territory.

The price to be paid for Louiſiana is 13 millions of dollars, moſt of which is payable after 15 years, before which term the preſent exiſting debt will be diſcharged by the operation of the ſinking fund. The intereſt of this increaſe of debt will be diſcharged, without recurring to new taxes.

The revenue of the United States is repreſented as extremely flouriſhing, and the actual receipt of the laſt year, ending on the 30th of September laſt has exceeded the eſtimate.

The United States have alſo acquired the fertile country of the tribe of Koſkaſkia Indians, whom the wars and wants of ſavage life have reduced to a few individuals.

The Preſident deprecates the renewal of war between England and France, and expreſſes his determination to preſerve the ſtricteſt neutrality. His advice is that of a wiſe ſtateſman and a benevolent man—'In the courſe of this conflict, let it be our endeavour, as it is our intereſt and deſire, to cultivate the friendſhip of the belligerent nations by every act of juſtice and of innocent kindneſs—to merit the character of a juſt nation, and maintain that of an independent one, preferring every conſequence to inſult and habitual wrong.'

The new title to be conferred on the Preſident of the United States of America, is, 'His Highneſs the Preſident of the United States, and Protector of its Liberties.'

We are happy to announce that the yellow fever, yielding as uſual to a ſeries of froſts, has totally diſappeared in America.

WEST INDIES.

At St Domingo, the garriſons of Fort Dauphin and St Marc have ſurrendered to the Theſeus and Vanguard, and the French at Cape Francois were reduced to an allowance of a plaintain and a half a day, and were hourly expected to expitulate.

By later accounts, a convention is ſaid to have been concluded between the St Domingo Blacks and the French troops, in purſuance of which the miſerable remains of the latter are permitted to evacuate the colony, which is to be declared independent.

The Blacks are ſtated to be ſtrongly attached to the Britiſh Government, and very eager to form a connection with it.—The treaty of Gen. Maitland with Touſſaint has left in their memory a moſt favourable impreſſion of the Britiſh character.

Diſpatches are expected daily with an account of the capture of Martinique. It has been for ſome time cloſely blockaded by our ſhips. The American papers ſtate, that in the abſence of the Britiſh fleet, on the expedition againſt the Dutch colonies of Demerara, Surinam, &c. the French at Guadaloupe ſent 2000 troops againſt Antigua: but, meeting with ſome Britiſh ſhips of war they inſtantly put back.

An account of the ſurrender of Surinam is ſhortly expected by Government, General Grinfield having determined to proceed thither from Berbice.

The local Government of Jamaica, has reſolved to prevent in future, the intercourſe hitherto partially allowed between the miſſionaries ſent thither from England, and the negroes. Mr Campbell who arrived in a late packet from Jamaica, had been impriſoned ſome weeks for perſiſting to preach to them, and liberated on condition of his quitting the iſland. Mr Fiſche, another miſſionary, was in priſon when he left it. The utmoſt precaution prevails among the white inhabitants of that colony; who ſeem to entertain apprehenſions of the negroes revolting, and introducing thoſe horrors which have ſo long raged in the neighbouring iſland of St Domingo.

EAST INDIES.

Accounts from Madras, dated May 7th, mention a very alarming fire in that ſettlement. Seventy buildings, with their contents, were at one time in a ſtate of conflagration. By the judicious meaſures which were taken, it was, however, at length ſubdued. The wind was fortunately from the ſouthward, and very moderate; which circumſtance preſerved the vaſt and beautiful range of buildings lately erected by Mr Cochrane. The loſs ſuſtained

ſuſtained by this calamity had not been aſcertained, and it was hoped that much of the rice, &c. might be ſaved. No lives were loſt on this melancholy occaſion.

Intelligence of an unpleaſant nature has been received from the iſland of Ceylon. A letter from a gentleman at Chilou, to his friend in Edinburgh, of date May 13th, ſays—"You muſt have heard of the war againſt the king of Candy, occaſioned by his robbing the Eaſt India Company. It has not turned out ſo favourably as was expected; we have only made one trifling conqueſt. This is owing to a bad fever that broke out among the troops in camp, and ſpread through the iſland. About thirty officers and twelve Civilians have fallen victims to this dreadful malady. About one thouſand Europeans, and ten thouſand natives, have died—but I am happy to add, that the fever is now abating, and we hope ſoon to be entirely free from it."

In another letter, dated Columbo, 14th May, it is ſtated, that the Engliſh forces there had a ſevere engagement with a part of the King of Candy's army. The reſult of the battle is not mentioned, but it is ſaid that the Engliſh have ſuffered great loſs from a malignant fever and ague prevalent in the iſland.

IRELAND.

The Siſter Kingdom we are now to conſider as in a ſtate of full protection. The ſquadron in Bantry Bay, under the command of Sir Robert Calder, amounts by this time to ten ſail of the line, all in complete order. Lord Gardner is off Sligo, and from theſe two points they can ſail with almoſt every wind that can blow, to meet the approach of the enemy. The chain of communication between them is kept up by a line of frigates.

According to a paper preſented to the Houſe of Commons, the number of the Iriſh Volunteers appears to be as follows:—Captains, 1126; Subalterns, 2206; Serjeants, 3573; Drummers or Trumpeters, 1003; Cavalry, 10,277; Infantry, 64,756; Grand Tot. 82,941.

The Cork Mercantile Chronicle contains the following paragraph reſpecting Mr Arthur O'Connor:

"We have been aſſured from authority which we deem unqueſtionable, that Mr Arthur O'Connor is now anxiouſly engaged in ſoliciting the intereſt of thoſe he conceives likely, through former friendſhip and preſent influence in this country, to exert themſelves in imploring the clemency of that Government which heretofore had been ſo much the object of his hoſtility. His contrition and repentance are deſcribed to be ſincere and affecting; but it is not for ſtates, juſt and clement as they ſhould be, to confound in their meaſures thoſe moral diſtinctions, which the ſenſibility of individuals will ſometimes overlook."

BRITISH INTELLIGENCE.

The Seſſion of Parliament has cloſed, and without a ſingle diviſion in either Houſe of the Legiſlature. This is extraordinary, and almoſt unprecedented, conſidering the criſis in which it aſſembled, and the various important topics, which, if not brought forward by Miniſters themſelves, it was generally expected would have been forced into conſideration by their indefatigable and violent opponents.—The beſt comment on the meaſures of Government, is certainly the unanimity with which they have been paſſed and ſanctioned.

The Volunteer Syſtem ſeems to have engroſſed the attention of the Legiſlature. It has been attacked with great aſperity on the one ſide, both in principle and practice; and temperately, but reſolutely, defended on the other. The country at large cannot but feel grateful for the language and conduct obſerved by the latter towards theſe highly diſtinguiſhed and important corps; for the attention paid to their feelings and character, and for the unalterable determination ſhown to maintain inviolable fidelity to the engagements under which they were conſtituted.

Reſpecting the information received by Government upon the ſubject of invaſion, it can only be matter of conjecture, founded upon the extraordinary buſtle which pervades every department, and every port. The officer commanding the Sea Fencibles at

Deal has given orders for the boats to be ready at a moment's warning.

The exertions of the officers in every department are ſpoken of in terms of the higheſt admiration. They ſeem to loſe all idea of perſonal comforts, and labour with unwearied zeal, day and night, for the good of the ſervice.

Repeated rumours of the enemy's having embarked, ſailed, and even landed, have of late, in no ſmall degree, intereſted the public intention, and ſeem to have given, if poſſible, a freſh ſtimulus to the preparations for defence. Armed and warned as this country is, the iſſue of an encounter with the enemy, is not to be dreaded; during the late ſtorms, however, it muſt have been impoſſible for the French to put to ſea, inferior as they are, both in veſſels and ſeamanſhip, to the Britiſh, who ſuffered ſo ſeverely from the "war of the elements."

LONDON.

A private letter to a moſt reſpectable Houſe in the city of London, from Mr Murray, formerly Vice-Conſul at Madeira, but now at Liſbon, ſtates, that on the night of the 9th of October laſt, a torrent ruſhed down from the mountains on the town of Funchal, the capital of the iſland of Madeira, with irreſiſtible violence, bearing every thing before it in its paſſege to the ſea. The bed of the river not being capable of containing this increaſe of water, overflowed on each ſide to a conſiderable extent, and ſwept away three of its bridges, and a magnificent church. Manſions, warehouſes, inhabitants, cattle, and effects of all ſorts, were indiſcriminately involved in the reſiſtleſs element, and hurried to the ocean. The ſtreets of two-thirds of the town were completely inundated: in moſt places the water reached to the firſt floor. The darkneſs of the night, the ruſh and roar of the waters, the cries of the ſufferers, the terror of all, formed ſuch a ſcene as may without great difficulty be conceived, but mocks all powers of deſcription. Towards morning, however, the violence of the torrent abated; and towards the noon of the next day had nearly ſubſided. Every exertion was now made to aſcertain the extent of the miſchief, and to relieve the diſtreſſes of thoſe to whom relief could be given.

It appears that from 700 to 800 perſons periſhed by this calamity.

Sir Edward Pellew has been able to preſerve his ſtation off Corunna with as much conſtancy as Admiral Cornwallis has done off Breſt.

By order of the Chancellor and Profeſſors of the Univerſity of Cambridge, the ſtudents are regularly drilled every day at 12 o'clock. The number of young men who have already come forward in defence of their *Alma Mater* is very conſiderable.

Mr Hamilton Rowan has obtained a pardon on the expreſs condition that he does not return to Ireland without the permiſſion of Government. He is now in London, and lately ſolicited permiſſion to viſit Ireland, under a legal guard, for the ſake of adjuſting ſome matters in that country reſpecting his private property, but received a poſitive refuſal.

24. The following official note from Lord Hawkeſbury to the Swediſh ambaſſador was poſted at Lloyd's on Saturday:—

"I have the honour of informing you, that in conſequence of the peculiar circumſtances of the moment, it has been judged expedient to iſſue orders, preventing all ſhips under Swediſh or other neutral colours, from entering any port or place on the coaſt between the Humber and Downs, with the exception of Yarmouth Roads and the Downs, to which places they will be ſtill permitted to reſort. I have loſt no time in enabling you to make all early communication of the meaſure which the King has thought fit to adopt, as it is his Majeſty's anxious wiſh that the trade of neutral nations may be ſubject to no unneceſſary impediment or inconvenience."

Governor Picton was on Friday taken before the Right Hon. Lord Ellenborough, at his houſe in Bloomſbury-ſquare, when his Lordſhip admitted this gentleman to bail; he was accordingly diſcharged out of the care of Sparrow,

Sparrow, one of his Majeſty's meſſengers, with whom he has been near five weeks.

His Excellency Elfi Bey, the Mameluke Chief, embarked on Thurſday at Portſmouth, on board his Majeſty's ſhip Argo. His Excellency was preſented with a beautiful portrait of his Majeſty ſet with diamonds, for which, through his interpreter, he expreſſed himſelf gratified. Among other articles of Engliſh utility, the Chief took out with him a fire engine.

Amount of Bank of England notes, of of five pounds each and upwards, including Bank poſt bills, payable ſeven days after ſight.

On 1ſt June	1803 -	L.12,847,340
1ſt Auguſt	1803 -	13,013,180
1ſt October	1803 -	12,370,500
25th November	1803 -	13,502,690

Amount of Bank of England notes of 2 l. and 1 l. each.

On 1ſt June	1803 -	L.3,253,600
1ſt Auguſt	1803 -	3,721,330
1ſt October	1803 -	4,032,010
25th November	1803 -	4,529,240

WM. WALTON, Acc. General.

Bank of England, 28. Dec. 1803,

An account of the amount of the notes of the Bank of Ireland, in circulation (including Bank poſt bills payable after ſeven days ſight) on the 1ſt October 1803, diſtinguiſhing the amount of the ſeveral deſcriptions of notes below the value of five pounds.

Value of 5l. and upwards	1,769,950	9 11
—— of 1l. 143,314 0 0		
—— of 1 g. 544,992 3 6	1,011,891	7 4
—— of 1 & 312,661 15 7		
—— of 3 10,923 8 3		
	L.2,781,841	17 3

The number of men wanting to complete the army of reſerve for the united kingdom is from 13,000 to 15,000. It appears, however, from Lord Caſtlereagh's ſtatement, that our armies, at preſent, exceed thoſe of France, even in numbers; and if they be not as yet *all* ſo well diſciplined, this diſadvantage is every day diminiſhing, and will, we truſt, be entirely done away before the return of a milder ſeaſon can give the French any reaſonable proſpect of uniting their armaments in any vigorous attempt.

EDINBURGH.

St Andrew's Day.

Nov. 30. This being the anniverſary of the feſtival of St Andrew, the tutelary ſaint of Scotland, the ancient and honourable fraternity of Free Maſons of Scotland, with the members of the different lodges in Edinburgh, and proxies from a number of other lodges in different parts of the kingdom, aſſembled in the New Church Aiſle, to elect the office bearers of the Grand Lodge for the enſuing year, when the following noblemen and gentlemen were choſen: The Right Hon. George Earl of Aboyne, Grand Maſter; the Right Hon. George Earl of Dalhouſie, Deputy Grand Maſter, and Grand Maſter Elect; John Clerk, Eſq. Subſtitute Grand Maſter; Sir George Stewart Mackenzie of Coull, Baronet, Senior Grand Warden; James Farquhar Gordon, Eſq. Junior Grand Warden; John Hay, Eſq. Grand Treaſurer; Mr Wm Guthrie, Grand Secretary; the Rev. Dr John Touch, Grand Chaplain; Mr James Bertram, Grand Clerk.

After the election, the brethren walked in grand proceſſion to the Trone Church (the city guard and a detachment of the Argyllſhire militia lining the ſtreets) where an excellent ſermon was preached by the Rev. Mr Ritchie, one of the miniſters of St Andrew's Church. The collection on this occaſion was for the Grand Lodge. Its funds are ſolely appropriated to charitable purpoſes, and in the courſe of the *three laſt years* upwards of *fifteen hundred* perſons and families, connected with indigent members, have been relieved by the charity of the Grand Lodge. In the evening the Grand Lodge met in the King's Arms Tavern, where the feſtival was celebrated with that ſocial harmony and decorous conviviality which invariably characteriſe the meetings of the fraternity.

The inhabitants of Edinburgh and its vicinity will hear with pleaſure that his Majeſty has accepted the offer of ſervice of two battalions of ſpearmen, to be embodied in this city, and to be called the *Loyal Edinburgh Spearmen*; and that the enrollment of the Firſt, or Trades Battalion, which has received the approbation of the Commander in Chief, is now proceeding. We are well

well perſuaded that every man who can handle a pike, and who is not engaged in any volunteer corps, will chearfully embrace this opportunity of coming forward "for the defence of our families and fireſides."

Alexander Macconochy, Eſq. and George Roſs, Eſq. are appointed depute advocates, in room of John Burnet, Eſq. and the Honourable George Abercromby, advocates, who have reſigned.

The Hon. Board of Truſtees for Manufactures in Scotland have juſt publiſhed a valuable diſcovery for dying cotton yarn a fixed *Turkey red*, which will prove of eſſential benefit to our manufactures.

The Lord Provoſt, Magiſtrates, and Council have unanimouſly reſolved, that at the preſent emergency, they will ſuſpend the privileges of the city, reſpecting the billeting of ſoldiers upon the inhabitants, on all occaſions when the Commander in Chief ſhall find it expedient to order it.

Dec. 1. At a meeting of the Royal College of Phyſicians held here this day, the following gentlemen were elected office-bearers for the enſuing year, viz. Dr Thos Spens, Preſident; Dr Wm Wright, Vice Preſident; Dr Jas Hamilton, ſen. Dr Jas Gregory, Cenſors; Dr F. C. Hope, Treaſurer; Dr Jas Home, Secretary; Dr Alex. Duncan, jun. Librarian; Dr Chas Stuart, Fiſcal; and Mr Alex. Boſwell, Clerk.

At the anniverſary meeting of the Society of Scottiſh Antiquaries, held on the 13th current, the following gentlemen were choſen office bearers:—His Grace the Duke of Montroſe, Preſident; Gilbert Innes, Eſq. 1ſt Vice-Preſident; John Dundas, Eſq. 2d do; Sir James Colquhoun, Bart. 3d do; Sir Alex. Seton, Bart. 4th do; Alex. Keith. Eſq. 5th do.

An erroneous idea having been taken up by ſeveral officers of the military ſtationed in Edinburgh and the neighbourhood, that they had a right to paſs the toll-bars duty free, both in carriages and on horſeback, *when in uniform, though not on actual ſervice*, the Sheriff, upon a complaint exhibited to him by the tackſman of one of the tolls to the eaſtward, fined the officer complained upon, in terms of the act of Parliament, the penalty in which is not more than 10l. nor leſs than 5l.

Tax on Property.

Rates.—Where the annual income, profits of trade or profeſſion, or from whatever ſource ariſing, ſhall amount to 60l. and be under 70l. there ſhall be charged a duty at the rate of 3d. in the pound.

L. 70 and under	L. 80	4d.
80 and under	90	5
90 and under	100	6
100 and under	110	7
110 and under	120	8
120 and under	130	9
130 and under	140	10
140 and under	150	11
150 and all above		1s. 0

For farms in Scotland, and ſuch houſes as are uſed in trade, the tenant is charged 6d. in the pound, and which, together with the 1s. for the landlord, is all paid by the tenant, who deducts the landlord's duty from the rent, when he comes to ſettle with the landlord. If the farm has been let within ſeven years of the paſſing of the act, the rent actually paid does in that caſe regulate the charge; but if the tack has been entered into beyond a period of ſeven years prior to the paſſing of the act, the duty muſt be regulated by what the lands would bring, if they were to be let at preſent.

26. The moſt melancholy details have been received from all parts, particularly the eaſtern coaſt, reſpecting the effects of the late ſevere gales. Our blockading and cruizing ſhips of war have fortunately eſcaped without material damage, although ſeveral have been forced from their ſtations; but great loſs both in lives and property has been ſuffered by the merchant ſervice.

Letters from the North ſtate, that from 50 to 100 Engliſh veſſels were loſt on the coaſt of Norway in the ſtorm of the 23d ult.; and at Fluſhing, the Dutch and French cruizers were daily carrying in Engliſh veſſels which had been damaged in that ſtorm.

*** The intereſting correſpondence of his Majeſty, the Prince of Wales, the Duke of York, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, with many articles of a temporary nature have been neceſſarily poſtponed.

LISTS.

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MARRIAGES.

At Edinburgh, William Inglis, of Harden Green, Esq. to Miss Ann Reoch, Park-Street.

At Montrose, Mr David Buchanan junior, to Miss Gregory, daughter of the Rev. James Gregoery.

Sir Henry Carr Ibbetson Bart. of Denton Park, to Miss Scott, only daughter of William Fenton Scott, Esq. of Woodhall.

At Belfast, Lieut. Clune, of the 63d Regiment, to Miss Boyd, daughter of Capt Boyd of the same Regiment.

At Stirling, Mr Robert Skinner of Dundee, to Mrs Bristow, relict of Mr Bristow, late of the Theatre-Royal Edinburgh.

At Edinburgh the Rev. John Leitch. Minister at Largs, to Miss Bethia Lowrie, daughter of George Lowrie, merchant.

At Dundee, David Laird, Esq. of Strathmartin, to Miss Susan Milln, daughter of the late John Milln, Esq,

At Ardintrine, Archibald Campbell Esq. 93d regiment, to Miss Ann M'Dougall, third daughter of Duncan M'Dougall Esq.

At Chesthunt Herts, Lieut. Col. Armstrong. to Miss Hayward, daughter of the late G, Hayward Esq. of Fereford.

At Portsmouth Major General Lloyd Royal Artillery, to Mrs Beaumez.

At Manie of Galston, the Rev. John Moody, minister of Riccarton, to Miss Margaret Isabella Smith, eldest daughter of the Rev. George Smith, minister of Galston.

At Stranraer, Mr Patrick M'Lymont of the Customs, to Miss Janet Bryce, from the Gatehouse Fleet.

At Glasgow, the Rev. John Thomson, minister of Dalry, to Miss Mary Fullarton, daughter of the Rev. John Fullarton.

At Isle of Man, Mr John Caird of Ballefrear, to Miss Charlotte Averne of Knocknemond.

At the Priory, the seat of the Marquis of Abercorn, Sir S. Manners Sutton, Solicitor General to the Prince of Wales, to Miss Copley, sister of Sir Lionel Copley, Bart.

At Edinburgh, Lord John Campbell, to Miss Campbell, Fairfield.

At Belfast, Dougal Campbell, Esq. surgeon second battalion Warwick militia, to Miss Moore, eldest daghter of the late Jas. Moore, Esq. of Bellydivity.

Robert Snow, Esq. banker in the Strand, London, to Miss Strahan, niece to the Rev. George Strahan, Rector of Cranham.

At Glasgow, James Dickson, Esq. merchant, Edinburgh, to Miss Jean Lang, daughter of John Lang, Esq. writer in Glasgow.

At London, Archibald Bruce, M. D. to Miss White, Portman-square.

BIRTHS.

At London, the Lady of General Hope, a son.

Mrs Fulton, Katchednize, a son.

At St Helena, the Lady of Lieut, Col. David Robertson, a daughter.

The Lady of John Harden, Esq. Hanover Street, a son.

At Spot House, Mrs Hay of Lawfield, a son.

At Whitworth, the Lady of Sir Hedworth Williamson, Baronet, a daughter.

At Alie Lodge, Fifeshire, the Lady of Admiral Dudingston, a daughter.

At Kirktonhill, Mrs Taylor, a son.

At Campbelton, the Lady of Colin M'Larty, a son.

At Edinburgh, Mrs Lieut.-Col Anslie, a son.

At Aucharnick, the Lady of Colonel Louis Grant, of Aucharnick, a daughter.

At Sinton House, Mrs Scott of Sinton, a son.

At London, the Lady of General Balfour, a daughter.

At Edinburgh, Mrs Caddel, younger of Cockenzie, a daughter.

At Vienna, the Lady of George Henry Rose, Esq. a daughter,

At Woodcote House, Herts, the Lady of Colonel Cunynghame, a son.

At Cleland, Mrs Dalrymple of Fordel, a son.

Mrs Gregory, St Andrew's Square, a son.

At Eglinton Castle, the Right Hon. Lady Montgomery, a son—The child we are sorry to add, expired a few hours after his birth.

The Lady of Major-Gen. D. Maclean Clephane, a daughter.

At Panton, the Lady of James Gordon of Letterfowry, Esq. a son.

At Parkhill House, Mrs Duncan of Parkhill, a son.

Mrs Brown, at Crailing Manse, a daughter.

The Lady of Alex. Erskine, Esq. of Bathan, a daughter.

At Dalkeith House, the Countess of Dalkeith, a daughter.

Mrs Burnett of Elrick, a son.

DEATHS.

At Honduras, of the yellow fever, Capt. Neville of the Port Mahon. He was deſervedly promoted for the conſpicuous part he bore in cutting out the Chevrette French corvette, in the boats of the Urania.

At Liſbon, Alexander Wilſon, Eſq. merchant there.

At Trentham Hall, Staffordſhire, in the 86th year of his age, the Moſt Noble Granville Leveſon Gower, Marquiſs of Stafford, Earl Gower, Viſcount Trentham, Baron Gower, K. G. His Lordſhip is ſucceeded by Earl Gower, his eldeſt ſon, who was married in the year 1785 to the Counteſs of Sutherland, now Marchioneſs of Stafford. The late Marquis was firſt married in 1744 to Elizabeth, the daughter of Nicholas Fazackerley, Eſq. His ſecond marriage was on March 28th 1748, to Louiſa Egerton, daughter of Scroope, Duke of Bridgewater. His Lordſhip was allied to many of the principal families in Britain. He formerly held ſome high ſituations of honour and truſt in his Majeſty's ſervice; in private life was univerſally admired for his virtues, and his loſs is very generally regretted.

At Twickenham, Lord Frederick Cavendiſh, uncle to the Duke of Devonſhire, and Lord G. H. Cavendiſh. He was a man of a ſtrong mind and amiable manners. He enjoyed, for many years before his death, the honour of being a Field Marſhall of his Majeſty's forces. He was born in Auguſt 1729, and died in the 74th year of his age; he was immenſely rich, and the bulk of his fortune is left to Lord G. H. Cavendiſh.

At Haſlar, aged 28, Lieut. W. de Busk, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf at the battle of the Nile, and on many other occaſions. He commanded a detachment of ſeamen at the capture of St Lucia, and received a ſevere contuſion, which is ſuppoſed to have haſtened his death.

At Greenwich Hoſpital, John Willet Payne, Eſq. Rear-Admiral of the Red, Treaſurer of Greenwich Hoſpital, Commiſſioner General and Auditor General to his Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales, brother to Lord Lavington, K. B. Governor of the Leeward Iſlands. He ſerved as midſhipman on board the Eagle of 64 guns, bearing the flag of Lord Howe, in the American war, from whence he was made Lieutenant, and promoted to the rank of Poſt Captain on the 8th of July 1780. He alſo commanded one of the ſhips in his Lordſhip's fleet in the memorable action of the 1ſt of June 1794; was made a Rear-Admiral of the Red on the 14th of February 1799, and the following year (on the reſignation of Lord Bridport) was appointed Treaſurer of Greenwich Hoſpital.

At Arbroath, Charles Allan, Eſq. of Lochlands, late provoſt of Arbroath.

At his ſeat of Balbethan, Aberdeenſhire, aged 84, Gen. Benjamine Gordon, Lieut. Colonel of the 48th regiment; the oldeſt Freeholder in the county. He was many years engaged in actual ſervice, and often in perilous ſituations, and always acquitted himſelf with peculiar propriety.

At Berwick, aged 88, Mr John Hartley. His widow, with whom he had been married 57 years, is ſtill living.

At London, in his 88th year, William Jackſon, Eſq. one of the caſhiers of the Banſl of England. He was father of the Bank, having been in the ſervice between 50 and 60 years, and was much eſteemed.

At his ſeat Hampſhire, in his 81ſt year, Wm. Hornby, Eſq. formerly Governor of Bombay.

In Kilkenny, aged 103, Mr Henry Reynolds.

At Dunny, aged 94, Richard Jones, Eſq. of Iſland Bridge, the oldeſt Magiſtrate of the county of Dublin.

On his paſſage to Britain, Alex. Forbes, Eſq. of Jamaica.

At his houſe in Perthſhire, Joſeph Fechney, Eſq. of Pleaſance.

At Aberdeen, Mr George Bannerman, eldeſt ſon of Thomas Bannerman Eſq.

At Jamacia, Mr Thomas William Graham, youngeſt ſon of the late John Graham, Eſq. of Drunkie.

At Edinburgh, Robert Allan, Eſq. Accountant.

At Weſter Elchies, Robert Grant, Eſq. aged 83.

At London, Carlyn Morris Nenner, Eſq. of Whiteſlade, late Captain of the Walpole, Eaſt Indiaman.

At Norland, Pariſh of Halifax, Mr Edward Hellawell, aged 104.

At Borthwickſhiels, Capt. Robert Pott, of Galalaw.

At London, John Gordon Haliburton, Eſq. of Muirhouſelaw.

At London, Dr Wm. Balmain, Surgeon to his Majeſty's Forces.

At Berlin, the Pruſſian General, Biſchoffswerder.

At Ayton, Yorkſhire, William Innes, Eſq. ſon of the deceaſed Alexander Innes, Eſq. of Cathlaw.

At Hamburgh, Mr Richard Shipley, of London.

At Glaſgow, James Gordon, Eſq. merchant.

At Bath, John M'Murdo, Eſq. of Northfield.

At Savannah la Mar, Jamaica, Mr John Lindſay, ſurgeon, F. R. S. E. and author of ſeveral ingenious botanical papers.

At Williamwood, near Glaſgow, John Orr, Eſq. Advocate, Commiſſary and ſenior Town Clerk of Glaſgow.

At Sunderland, aged 96, Mordecai Lazarus, a Poliſh Jew, who travelled this country, with a box upwards of 60 years.

At Leiceſter, Mr Alderman Watts, an eminent brewer. In the early part of his life he quitted the tillage of the field for the field of glory, and ſerved 12 years in Canada, during which he was in ſeveral pitched battles. He was at the taking of Quebec, and in the field when the gallant Wolfe fell. On his return to his country he became a Publican, and by perſeverance and induſtry acquired a handſome property.

At Columbo, Ceylon, David Blair, Eſq. of Balthyock, Major in the Eaſt India Company's Service.

At Edinburgh, Thomas Pringle, Eſq. Vice Admiral of the Red.

Mr Etherington Martin, herald painter, and blazoner of arms to the Lion Court.

At Heath, near Southampton, Admiral Parry.

On his paſſage from Bengal, on the 4th of November. Colonel Henry Hyndman, of the Hon. Eaſt. India Company's ſervice.

At St Helena, on the 16th of Auguſt, Capt. Thomas Bazett, one of the oldeſt ſervants in the Hon. Eaſt India Company's ſervice.

On the 21ſt of May laſt, at Columbo, in the Iſland of Ceylon, Lieut Col. Barbut, Deputy Quarter-Maſter-General to his Majeſty's forces in India.

At Dominica, Lieutenant Alex. Home, of the Royal Navy.

In the Iſland of St Vincent's, Mr James Macdowall, of Parkhill.

At Fairlie Houſe, aged 81, Alexander Fairlie, Eſq. in whoſe character were united the dignified manners of the gentleman with the acquirments of the claſſical ſcholar. He preſerved unimpaired the natural vigour of his intellectual faculties, amidſt the infirmities of age, and a lingering diſtemper. By ſteadily purſuing a plan of agricultural improvements, beneficial to the ſoil, and of courſe to the landlord and tenant, he is entitled to the merit of being amongſt the beſt practical farmers Ayrſhire has produced.

At Edinburgh, George Milne, of Sydſerf, Eſq. in the 20th year of his age.

At Leith Walk, Mr Alexander Lindſay, ſchoolmaſter and ſeſſion Clerk, South Leith.

At Linlithgow, Mr William Robertſon, of the Cuſtoms, Borrowſtouneſs, in the 82d year of his age.

On his paſſage from India, in the United Kingdom, Patrick Maxtone, Eſq. ſon of the deceaſed James Maxtone of Cultoquhey, Eſq.

At London, the Rev. Mr Cuthbert, one of the Miniſters of Long Acre Chapel.

John M'Douall, Eſq. brother of the late Earl of Dumfries.

Mr Heaton Wilks, brother of the late John Wilks, Eſq. in the 76th year of his age.

In Ceylon, Mr Sylveſter Gordon, third ſon of Charles Gordon, Eſq. of Wardhouſe.

SEQUESTRATIONS.

William Greenlaw, and R. Affleck, maſons in Dumfries.

Andrew Stirling, ſhipmaſter, Dyſart.

Robert Wallace, merchant, Perth.

James Ruſſel, merchant taylor, in Glaſgow.

Charles Philip, cattle dealer, at Tulloes of Benholm.

David Burnet, manufacturer, Perth.

Thomſon, Lindſay, & Co. manufacturers, Glaſgow.

Andrew Gibſon, manufacturer, Paiſley.

Charles Winchester, maſon in Aberdeen.

James Reid, & Co. merchants, Glaſgow.

Richard M'Lean, merchant, Edinburgh.

Park, and Alexander, manufacturers, Newton upon Ayr.

Neil Kennedy, merchant, Ayr.

Alexander Farland, merchant, Glaſgow.

George Sim, merchant, Aberdeen.

Thomſon, Surrat, & Co. merchants, Glaſgow.

Fiſh and M'Alliſter, fiſh chandlers, Greenock.

Edinburgh, Dec. 29.

Beſt Oat meal, 1s. 5d. Barley-meal, 11d. Peaſe-meal, 11d.

Haddington, Dec. 23.

Beſt Wheat, 29s. Barley, 18s. Oats, 18s. Peaſe, 19s. Beans, 19s.

STOCKS.—*Dec.* 21.

Bank Stock ——	5 per C. 1797, 87 ¼ ¼
3 per C. Red. 52 ¼	Long Ann. 15 3-8 7-16
3 per C. Cons. 53 ⅝ ¾	India Stock ——
4 per C. Con. 67 ⅛ ⅜	Omnium 8 ¼ diſc.
5 per C. Ann. 87 ⅜ ¼	